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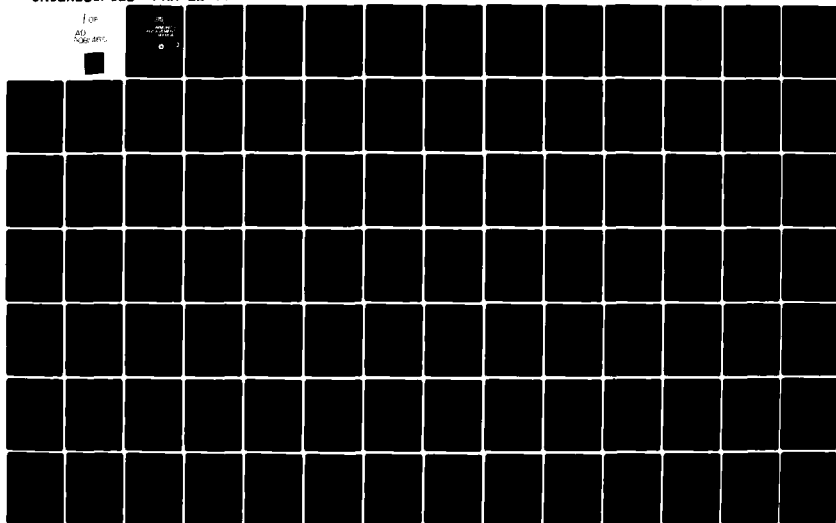
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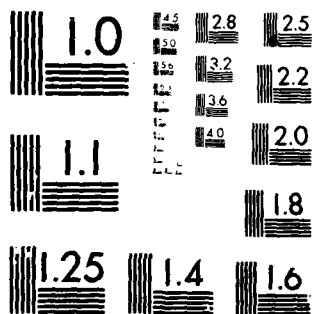
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FEDERAL AVIATION ADMINISTRATION

COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT MANUAL

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**U.S. DEPARTMENT OF TRANSPORTATION
Federal Aviation Administration
Office of Environment and Energy
Washington, D.C. 20591**

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16. Abstract One of the greatest problems facing aviation today is the environmental and social impacts of airports on nearby communities. In order to create a climate which will allow the maintenance or expansion of services needed to meet future aviation demand, airports must be seen as concerned neighbors by the people who live near them. The challenge is to solve the problems of air pollution, aircraft noise, groundside traffic congestion, and the many other impacts associated with airports, without compromising the highest degree of safety or without detracting from the management of the air navigation system.		
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INTRODUCTION

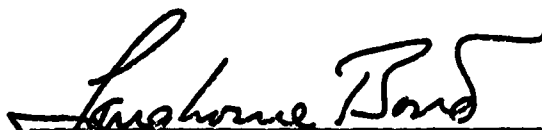
One of the greatest problems facing aviation today is the environmental and social impacts of airports on nearby communities. In order to create a climate which will allow the maintenance or expansion of services needed to meet future aviation demand, airports must be seen as concerned neighbors by the people who live near them. Everyone within FAA whether working in traffic control, flight standards, facilities, airports, planning, environment and energy, or public affairs shares responsibility to create that climate. The challenge is to solve the problems of air pollution, aircraft noise, groundside traffic congestion, and the many other impacts associated with airports, without compromising the highest degree of safety or without detracting from the management of the air navigation system.

FAA regulations require quieter planes by 1985. However, this may not seem sufficient to people who live near airports today. And noise, like congestion, air pollution, and most other environmental and social problems, does not lend itself to a single or simple solution. This is why we must all be involved.

For this reason we believe that community involvement may provide our brightest and best tool, particularly for the next decade, in developing acceptable approaches to these problems while enhancing the perception of aviation as a concerned neighbor. As a result we reaffirm that the FAA will provide for and encourage the community involvement concept as well as the "human consideration" in aviation decisionmaking.

Towards these ends, then, I have initiated a related Order (1000.31) concerning the management of human considerations in aviation (see pp ii) and endorse the community involvement philosophy discussed in this manual.

We believe this is an important step in working with local communities to ensure that the National Aviation System is seen as an asset at the local level.



Administrator
Federal Aviation Administration

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ORDER

**DEPARTMENT OF TRANSPORTATION
FEDERAL AVIATION ADMINISTRATION**

1000.31

3/26/79

SUBJ: MANAGING HUMAN CONSIDERATIONS IN AVIATION

1. PURPOSE. This order establishes policy and assigns responsibility for creating and maintaining a responsive, continuing process to assure adequate attention to human considerations in aviation management and aviation development.

2. DISTRIBUTION. This order is distributed to the branch level in Washington, regions, and centers and to all field offices.

3. BACKGROUND. The intent of this order is to enhance public service through more specific attention to human considerations in aviation. The object is not to install some new management theory or system. Rather, it is to enable us more systematically to understand better what works and apply what we learn.

a. The Federal Aviation Administration is charged with performing a major role in the National Aviation System and more specific, overall responsibility for the National Airspace System. The people who design, develop, install, maintain, operate, manage and use these systems represent the critical link within these systems. Thus, strengthening these systems requires addressing human considerations in a systematic way. Doing so is and always has been a major FAA responsibility. This order establishes policies for making this responsibility more explicit.

b. The FAA has no choice as to whether or not to be concerned about developing new strategies involving human considerations in these large systems. The environment within and around the FAA is becoming increasingly complex and is constantly changing. Employee values and expectations are changing. The demands and requirements of the public and of the users of FAA's services are also changing. The FAA needs comprehensive and integrated strategies to more adequately anticipate and adapt to changing circumstances.

4. DEFINITION. The term "human considerations" in this order refers particularly to the evolving role of the human in aviation and the psychological, social, political and economic implications of that role. The term also includes matters which carry "human factors," "human engineering" and other labels which suggest more the physiological interfaces between the human being and the technical system.

3/26/79

5. SCOPE. This order applies to the manner in which the FAA deals with its employees and the manner in which it interfaces with the aviation community, the public and society in general.

6. POLICY. It is the agency's policy:

a. To afford individuals and employee groups at many more levels a real and continuing opportunity to influence their work environment; that they shall be provided means to be involved systematically in participating effectively in decisions which affect them.

b. That criteria for the design, development and implementation of technology and technical systems shall reflect appropriately and systematically the considerations of the role and impact on the human in the system.

c. That a workable structure shall be developed and maintained to assure the coordination, collaboration, and integration of various agency organizations engaged in studying the human in the National Aviation System. This structure should include provision for periodically engaging appropriate personnel in thinking about the future relationships between human considerations and the changing economic, psychological, social, political, technological and ecological environment in which aviation functions.

d. That, as required, the FAA shall provide leadership in assuring the coordination and integration of human considerations among various elements of the National Aviation System of which the FAA is a part. This includes using various means to optimize practical and meaningful community participation in aviation decisions. The role to be performed shall be appropriate to and consistent with provisions in the Federal Aviation Act charging the agency with promoting and fostering aviation.

7. DELEGATION OF AUTHORITY. The Deputy Administrator is assigned responsibility for overseeing the development, implementation and follow-on of activities to accomplish the policies established through this order.


Langhorne Bond
Administrator

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PART I: DEFINING COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

CHAPTER 1: THE NEED FOR COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

Almost everyone experiences some thrill as TV commentators chronicle the saga of flight from Leonardo, to Kitty Hawk, to men on the moon. In a relatively few years--historically speaking--aviation has been transformed from an activity of a few "daring young men in flying machines" to a major institution in our society, with a significant economic and social role.

But the thrill is gone for the family whose peace and quiet is regularly interrupted by the noise of a jet taking off from the local airport. There is little thrill for the businessman who misses his flight--and a potential customer--because traffic congestion at the airport was so bad that it took him an hour to make the last seven blocks to the airport. And it is no thrill to realize that you can often tell where the airport is from a distance by the brown haze which hangs over it.

Increasingly the challenges which aviation faces are not just technical, but social, political, and environmental. The obvious fact is that the aviation system--in addition to major benefits--often creates major social and environmental costs for the communities which surround it. Finding ways of reducing impacts on communities while still providing badly needed transportation services is the fundamental problem facing aviation today.

WHO IS RESPONSIBLE?

The fact is that no one single agency, group, or organization has all the answers, or the authority, to solve these problems. Take the issue of noise: FAA has authority over take-off and landing procedures, so--within the limits of safety--adjustments can sometimes be made to reduce noise to local communities. The airport operator, often a local governmental agency, may control the run-up operations of planes and their location on the airport which can affect the amount of noise impacting airport neighbors. By mutual agreement the airport operator and the airlines can sometimes limit the number of flights during the night. The airplane manufacturers can contribute by designing quieter planes (the newer planes are, in fact, quieter). The airlines can help by utilizing the quieter planes. Local communities can provide planning guidelines and zoning regulations which encourage uses near the airport that are compatible with the inevitable side effects of airports.

The point is that everyone has to contribute if the effort is to be successful. Virtually every program to reduce environmental and social impacts of airports requires coordinated action from a variety of agencies and interests. The harsh fact is that without this kind of coordinated effort things aren't going to get better for quite a while. The FAA has required by regulation that by 1985 all major carriers must be utilizing planes that meet quieter noise standards. But, this action alone will not remove all noise problems. Nor will it immediately resolve the problem of the person experiencing a noise problem today. We need a concerted effort from the various affected sectors to mount a successful campaign to minimize such impacts.

COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN AVIATION DECISIONMAKING

Community Involvement is a process for bringing together all the people who can contribute to a solution--federal agencies, local and state governmental entities, airline companies, interest groups, interested and affected individuals--in a consultative decisionmaking process which can reduce or mitigate environmental or social problems arising from the aviation system. Community Involvement can take many forms: public meetings, neighborhood offices, advisory groups, workshops, newsletters, study groups, or public hearings. In effective community involvement these various methods for communication and problem-solving are combined into a total program designed to ensure that the concerns and needs of all the participants are considered in the decisionmaking process.

THE MANDATE FOR COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

The Federal Aviation Administration actively encourages community involvement in all FAA sponsored programs. FAA employees are encouraged to work directly with all elements of the aviation industry to provide opportunities for community involvement in aviation decision-making. To encourage community involvement, funds are often available to defray the costs associated with this activity.

The legal mandate for community involvement is provided in Public Law 94-54, which states:

"No airport development project may be approved by the Secretary unless he is satisfied that fair consideration has been given to the interest of the communities in or near which the project is located." Section 16 (c)(3).

In addition, FAA's intention is stated in a number of advisory circular statements, including the following:

"Public hearings, public information sessions, coordination meetings, and other communications conducted for the purpose of ensuring that the planning study receives input and is fully coordinated with the public, and with interested parties (i.e. planning agencies, community organizations, affected jurisdictions, airport users) are extremely important and essential activities in a planning study. The appropriate FAA office should ensure that the necessary coordination has been considered in the study design, and is achieved during the progress of the study. In many instances sponsors and consultants can be expected to underestimate the workload and requirements involved in these activities and in such cases should be alerted. For this reason, a liberal attitude in approving the number of such meetings is suggested." [Advisory Circular 150/5900.1B Planning Grant Program Paragraph 217].

Because of the importance of community involvement in planning, the FAA has issued Advisory Circular 150/5050-4, "Citizen Participation in Airport Planning."

Policy and Procedures for Considering Environmental Impacts (Order 1050.1B).

"Affected local units of government, and pertinent federal and state agencies should be consulted early in the process of preparing a DEIS, ND, or environmental impact assessment report..." (Section 206)."

"Citizen involvement should be initiated at the earliest practical time and continued throughout the development of the proposed project in order to obtain meaningful input..." (Section 207).

Policy on Noise Control Plans (Order 1050.11)

"FAA shall...encourage citizen and user participation in the development of noise control plans." [Section 6 (b)(7)].

This policy was also stated in the Secretary's "DOT/FAA Aviation Noise Abatement Policy of 1976" which states:

"The existence, operation and development of an airport provides a service to and is interrelated with both the local community and airport users. These are also the parties who would be most directly affected by the airport's noise control

plan. We therefore consider it vital that these parties have the opportunity to take part in the planning process. As a condition of FAA noise abatement planning grants, the airport proprietor will be required to provide for reasonable public notice of the plan and provide an opportunity for public participation in the development of the proposed plan. Public notice should describe the plan, the actions proposed, the reasons why these actions are proposed, alternative courses of action considered, and why these alternatives were rejected. The FAA also encourages other means of involving the public, both formal and informal, to ensure meaningful public participation in the process." [Part 2, Chapter 3, Section D (3), p. 57].

National Policy

In addition to these FAA policy guidelines, the Council on Environmental Quality Regulations for Implementing Procedural Provisions of the National Environmental Policy Act specify that:

"Federal agencies shall to the fullest extent possible.... encourage and facilitate public involvement in decisions which affect the quality of the human environment. " [Section 1500.2(d)].

Section 1506.6 of these regulations includes a more detailed description of agencies' obligations in public involvement.

When Is Community Involvement Needed

Community involvement is recommended whenever public acceptance and understanding of an action or decision is required. Specifically, community involvement is required:

- A. In all actions or projects requiring the preparation of an EIS or Environmental Assessment.
- B. In noise abatement programs, including changes in FAA operational procedures designed to reduce noise impacts.
- C. In Airport Noise Control and Land Use Compatibility Studies (ANCLUC).
- D. In planning studies, including Unified Work Programs, State Airport System Plans, Metropolitan and Regional Area Airport Systems Plans, and Airport Master Plans.
- E. In facilities establishments, particularly where the proposal of an addition of navigation equipment or other improvements could be interpreted as permitting or encouraging additional traffic or larger airplane operations.

FAA Support for the Airport Proprietor

In some cases FAA's role is to encourage and support the airport proprietor in the development of an effective community involvement program.

FAA can help by:

1. Providing reimbursement of community involvement costs.
2. Participating in advisory and technical committees.
3. Attending public meetings, providing appropriate technical and operational information to the public.
4. Encouraging airport proprietors to develop community involvement programs and advising them of available resources (training, consultants, publications, services) to assist in designing and conducting effective community involvement programs.
5. Assisting in liaison with other federal, state and local agencies.

THE COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT MODEL

This manual is designed to provide the best information currently available about how to design and conduct effective community involvement programs. Although formal community involvement programs are relatively new, over the past ten years a body of knowledge about community involvement efforts has been developing. This knowledge comes not only from community involvement in aviation, but also similar efforts in highway planning, water resources planning, and management of forest and recreation lands. Because community involvement programs are relatively new, there remain ample opportunities for additional innovation and development within the field. Hopefully this manual will provide the starting place for numerous successful programs of community involvement.

CHAPTER 2: WHAT COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT CAN--AND CANNOT--DO

What can community involvement hope to accomplish? The fundamental justification for community involvement is the basic premise of democracy that people have a right to participate in the decisions that affect them. This principle is particularly compelling when the decisionmakers are government agencies who derive their authority from "the consent of the governed."

There are four additional objectives for community involvement. These include:

Inform the Public: Both as a matter of law and as a fundamental of democratic government, the public has a right to be fully informed of the actions of governmental agencies. Even when the sponsor of a community involvement program is not a government agency, there is still good reason for informing the public. When people understand why things are the way they are, or how things work, they are more likely to accept or support them. In the absence of information, people become resentful and suspicious. An adversary relationship tends to develop. Once this adversary relationship develops it is increasingly difficult to solve problems when they do occur.

Gather Information from the Public: Community involvement provides an opportunity to gather information about local needs and concerns; local social, economic and environmental conditions; and the relative importance the public places upon various program objectives.

Conflict Resolution: Community involvement sometimes results in a broad general agreement which provides a base of support for proposed actions or policies. Because of the divided authorities within aviation, many things can be resolved by mutual agreement which are difficult to accomplish by the decision of one of the agencies. In addition, many programs cannot obtain the funding or authorization they need without the broad public support that occurs when problems are solved by mutual agreement.

Establish the Credibility of the Decision-Making Process: Since there cannot be complete agreement on all decisions, decisions must derive their legitimacy not just from legal authority, but from the common belief that the decision was arrived at in a fair and equitable manner. One requirement in establishing this legitimacy is that the decisionmaking process be sufficiently open and visible so that the public can make its own judgment that the decision-making process was fair and equitable. Another key factor is demonstrating to the public that equal access has been provided to all individuals and groups.

WHAT CAN BE EXPECTED FROM THE PUBLIC

There are many people in aviation who have expressed concern that aviation is simply too technical a field for the public to be able to participate effectively. Actual experiences with community involvement programs indicate that there is, in fact, a learning period which citizens go through in the early stages of community involvement. Realistically there will be some frustration when other citizens join in the middle of the process and have to start the learning process, while others are ready to "get on with it." The sponsors will also find that they must make a concerted effort to "translate" their field into a language which the public can understand. Incidentally, experience also shows that one by-product of this effort to explain technical matters in language understandable to the public is that communication also improves among the technical people. Apparently the public is not always the only one intimidated by technical jargon!

But, despite the frustrations and extra efforts required, the public has provided important information and many innovative ideas in the planning process. In fact people experienced in conducting community involvement warn that it is very important to always start on the premise "that the public is at least as smart as you are." This doesn't mean that the public can know as much about all the technical details as you can, but can certainly provide helpful information and analysis of basic premises. In fact, when it comes to the impact of the airport on them, no one is more expert than the person receiving the impacts. While not the exclusive source of this information, the kinds of information you can reasonably expect from the public, and from local agencies, include:

- . The social, economic and environmental impacts of the airport.
- . Community goals, values, and needs.
- . Factors that affect future aviation needs.
- . Relative importance of aviation impacts.
- . Land uses which are considered compatible.
- . Existing land use.
- . Unconstrained future land use patterns.
- . Evaluation of alternative courses of action.
- . Potential political implications of alternative courses of action.

COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN ACTION: THE SEA-TAC STORY

The role the public can play is illustrated by the development of the Sea-Tac (SEATTLE-Tacoma) Community Plan in the State of Washington, one of the best known examples of community involvement in aviation decision-making.

Like many airports, Sea-Tac International was established in the early 1940's, prior to the advent of jet aircraft. During the 1940's the area around the airport began to develop rapidly, with population almost doubling again in the 1950's. In 1957 the first jet aircraft flights began, and so did the problems. No one had ever planned for the noise levels which the jets produced. Homes were located immediately adjacent to the end of the runway. None of the homes were insulated for high noise levels.

The Port of Seattle, the airport operator, at first ignored the complaints. Soon lawsuits were filed against the airport. Over \$1,000,000 was paid in claims, with additional costs in legal fees, but still the problem continued, with no solution in sight for either side.

By 1972 the Port of Seattle was ready to try a new approach. Although litigation may have held down the costs to the Port, the Port's "let 'em sue" policy had created a bitter adversary relationship with neighboring communities. In addition to a general downturn in the business climate, additional uncertainties about people's ability to sell their homes had been created by the mortgage policies of the U. S. Department of Housing and Urban Development because of the noise. Clearly some new approach needed to be tried. Simultaneously King County, the governmental agency responsible for planning in the area, was preparing to develop plans for the neighboring communities. The FAA was also eager to see a more cooperative planning approach take place. In 1973 the Sea-Tac Communities Plan Project was initiated by the three agencies, with two-thirds of the funding provided by the FAA.

A Policy Advisory Committee (PAC) was established including representatives of the three sponsoring agencies, the airlines, local schools, and the neighborhoods. A study team of consultants was selected to prepare the technical studies, and they in turn were assisted by a Technical Advisory Committee which was composed primarily of representatives from various federal, state, and local agencies, local universities, airlines, and aircraft manufacturers.

The first step was to publicize the start of the study both through a series of newspaper and television stories as well as a letter sent directly to 36,000 residents in the neighborhood communities. A project office was also established in the neighboring communities. Citizen sub-committees were established to review the work produced by the study

team. Smaller task forces were established to study specific topics. Before the study was over, there would be more than 200 meetings of various committees and task forces. A series of workshops were designed by a task force to be conducted at the local community college, with the six-week period of classes attracting the largest enrollment for a series of classes in the history of the community school program. A statistically valid community survey was also conducted to identify the primary concerns of citizens. A television program was developed and aired over local TV stations, coordinated with the distribution of 15,000 questionnaires. This television program was designed in consultation with citizens, and included the results from the survey.

After preferred plans were developed, the alternative plans were distributed in a newspaper supplement with circulation reaching 70,000 people. Again there was a clip-out questionnaire included. Newsletters and fact sheets were produced periodically throughout the study and sent to over 1500 residents. Articles in the local newspaper also appeared frequently describing progress on the project. Open houses were held at the community project office, with displays and opportunities for discussion. Field trips were also arranged so that staff could point out various problem areas to citizens. Throughout the writing of the final plan, draft copies were available for review by the various task forces, and then again in three community meetings. Questionnaires were used again to obtain individual's concerns about how the plan applied to specific properties.

So what was accomplished for all this effort? The most dramatic accomplishment was the decision of the Port of Seattle --while the study was still going on--to proceed immediately to develop plans for acquisition of property adjacent to the airport. Other immediate changes in run-up procedures were made during the study, based on public comment. These actions were a clear encouragement to individuals and groups to participate in the study, because they could see concrete results from their participation.

The acquisition program was designed so that those homes which were most significantly affected were acquired, with the area cleared and available only for uses consistent with airport operation. The homes in the next level of impact were soundproofed, and a sale guarantee provided if the homeowner was unable to sell the home when he/she wanted. At the third level of impact, a portion of soundproofing costs would be paid for by the Port of Seattle.

Actions which have been taken as a result of this planning effort include the following:

- . Some \$12 million has been committed by the Port of Seattle and FAA for acquiring properties subject to high noise exposure. Of the 600 homes to be acquired, 350 have already been obtained.

- Relocation assistance has been provided by the Port to those whose homes have been acquired.
- The U. S. Department of Housing and Urban Development is tailoring its home mortgage commitments to the recommendations in the plan.
- The State Legislature has granted the Port Authority the additional authority to spend money for sound insulation. A pilot program to test the cost and effects of sound insulation is under way.
- A noise monitoring system is in the final stages of development.
- King County is working on zoning and building code revisions based on the plan. The County has delineated specific park and recreation projects outlined in the plan.
- Some 25,000 trees have been planted in designated buffer zones by local Boy Scout organizations.
- As indicated above, aircraft run-up positions have been changed and run-up is no longer permitted between 11 p.m. to 7 p.m.
- A special committee has been established by the Port to assist in the consideration of "hardship" cases in the land acquisition area.

Certainly not all noise problems have been solved. Citizens' groups have continued to oversee the implementation of the plan with a watchful eye. Portions of the plan are slowed until funds are available. Disagreements have occurred between the Port and the County on the interpretation of portions of the plan. In the meantime many homes continue to be impacted by noise.

One of the most noticeable changes reported by citizens is their feeling that they can work with the Port, the County, and the FAA to solve problems as they occur. Citizens not only have the feeling that they learned a lot, but also that they taught the staff and consultants a lot. Even if the problems haven't all gone away, everyone associated with the project has a sense that it has made a difference.

ANOTHER CASE OF COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT: THE WESTCHESTER EXPERIMENT

The Sea-Tac story is of a major study (costing more than \$600,000) at a major regional airport. Yet the environmental impacts of airports are not associated only with major airports. The story of the Westchester County Airport is the story of what can be done at a much smaller airport, without undertaking a major study.

Westchester County Airport (WCA) is a general aviation airport located on the Connecticut-New York border. During 1976, the airport ranked fourth in total operations and second in general aviation operations in New York State. The uses of WCA are varied, including: 1) Corporate jets for executives of major corporations located in the area; 2) light aircraft for private use and training; 3) commercial carriers providing scheduled service; and 4) an Air National Guard operation.

The area surrounding the airport includes normal residential areas with the usual complement of schools, churches, hospitals and recreation areas, as well as extremely expensive homes on large lots (2 to 4 acres). There is no significant business development in the area.

In the period from 1958 to 1968 the use of the airport almost doubled, including the increased use of jets. Neighbors began to object bitterly, with particular objections to: 1) Jet operations from 10 p.m. to 7 a.m.; 2) jet engine run-ups; 3) use of reverse thrust, particularly at night; 4) a constant stream of light aircraft practicing touch and goes. From 1968 on the Greenwich, Connecticut Homeowners Association began to formally protest the noise, but were generally passed from one governmental authority to another, each claiming that the other was responsible. In 1974, in total frustration, the residents of Greenwich filed a \$20,000,000 suit against the owner and operator of Westchester County Airport and the FAA.

Six months later Westchester County offered to negotiate. Based on the fear and mistrust which had built up over the years, the citizens at first refused. But through the intervention of the National Business Aircraft Association (corporate airplanes) and the Westchester County Pilots' Association, the Homeowners' Association finally agreed to negotiate.

One year after the lawsuit was filed, a Stipulation of Settlement was finally worked out between the lawyers. This stipulation established a committee to continue negotiations on a regular basis, between the Pilots' Association and the homeowners. The County agreed to act upon the recommendations of the committee. The first few meetings were tense, with each side anxious about what the other would do or expect of them. But the negotiations have led to concrete results, including:

1. The publication of a noise abatement procedure for Westchester County Airport.
2. A voluntary curfew of jet take-offs from 11:00 p.m. to 6:30 a.m.
3. Elimination of reverse thrusts except in emergencies.
4. A voluntary reduction in touch and go operations.
5. Prohibition of turbine engine run-ups except in emergencies.

6. A manned twenty-four hour noise complaint phone, with a procedure for dealing with complaints.
7. The purchase of a portable noise monitoring system.
8. Installation of instrument guidance systems needed to help pilots comply with the noise abatement procedure.
9. Nationwide notification through publications that WCA is a noise-sensitive airport with noise abatement procedures that must be observed.
10. Homeowner representation on a Board developing a long-range plan for the airport.

Like Sea-Tac, all the problems have not been solved. But again there has developed a great satisfaction that methods have been found to solve problems together, and that the problems are not insurmountable.

WHAT COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT CANNOT DO

While much can be accomplished with community involvement--often more than was imagined possible--there are many people who are concerned that community involvement programs will raise unrealistic expectations. Some feel that if people participate, and subsequently nothing happens or the problem isn't solved, they may feel more resentful than if they hadn't been asked to participate in the first place. So here's a list of things community involvement cannot be expected to do:

1. Community involvement doesn't eliminate noise; only action programs eliminate noise. While community involvement may lead to agreement on what to do, or how to go about it, it takes specific programs to reduce noise. If these programs adversely impact safety or otherwise detract from the management of the air navigation system or are not economically or politically feasible--or if everything that can be done, has been done--the noise won't go away. Community involvement can create a political climate in which things can be done which were previously not thought possible, but there are still outer limits on what is possible. The range of noise abatement programs available may only produce modest decreases in noise. This helps, however, even if it doesn't remove the problem.
2. Community involvement cannot force agreement between conflicting elements in the community. Community involvement can often lead to conflict resolution. But community involvement is an entirely voluntary process. There is no way that community involvement can force agreement between interests or factions

within the community that believe they can win more--or lose less--by continuing to fight on. What community involvement can do is break down some of the stereotypes which reinforce adversary positions, so that improved conditions for conflict resolution are created.

3. Community involvement cannot substitute for adequate technical evaluation of alternative actions. There is no intention of substituting community involvement for sound technical studies. Community involvement should be used in addition to developing fully adequate studies; or more accurately, in coordination with the technical studies. Community involvement programs must be carefully integrated with technical studies so that the public can be provided useful technical information whenever participation is requested, and public comment cannot be received at those points where they cannot provide useful guidance to the technical studies.
4. Community involvement cannot be accomplished cheaper or quicker than conventional studies. Normally planning done using community involvement will be somewhat more costly, and frequently take longer, than studies have in the past. So if community involvement is evaluated solely on the costs of arriving at a decision or plan, it is more costly, although it may be justified by other values. But if the evaluation of community involvement includes the costs of implementation, then community involvement may turn out to be very economical. The costs of delays and litigation due to public opposition is often immense. If community involvement can result in expeditious implementation it may save a considerable amount of money.

By recognizing these limitations, realistic expectations for community involvement can be established, providing realistic opportunities for success.

NOTE: The Sea-Tac and Westchester County examples are taken from reports available to the public from FAA. These reports are:

Planning for the Airport and Its Environs: The Sea-Tac Success Story, prepared by Peat Marwick, Mitchell & Co., April, 1978.

The Westchester Experiment, by Ms. Joan E. Caldwell.

Both reports are available by writing:

U. S. Department of Transportation
Federal Aviation Administration
Office of Environment and Energy (AEE-1)
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CHAPTER 3: GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

This chapter contains a number of general observations about the attitude or philosophy with which public involvement programs should be approached. This "advice" is based both on a general philosophy of community involvement and practical experience attempting to implement effective community involvement.

1. The design of a community involvement program communicates how much you value or desire the community's involvement. No amount of rhetoric about how much the community's contributions are desired will outweigh the communication to the public which results from a poorly designed community involvement program. It's another case of "action speaks louder than words." If the community is consulted so late in the process that basic commitments have already been made, if participation never results in any tangible change, if alternatives or arguments consistent with the agency's values are the only ones considered, the community will get the message: "We have to go through the ritual, but don't expect anything to come out of it." As a result, doing "letter-of-the-law" community involvement is often worse than doing none at all, because it poisons the relationship with the community for those occasions when you genuinely want participation. If you genuinely want public comment, and design your program with care to get it, that message will get across even if you are not yet totally skilled in community involvement. But if you are just doing it because you have to, that will be communicated loud and clear.
2. Maintain the visibility of the program. When people are suspect of an agency or process, particularly when the issue is something as emotional as an airport's impact on a community, anything that can't be seen can lead to suspicion. This is a case of "seeing is believing." You may know that the evaluation process you went through, for example, was objective and fair to all points of view. But if the public can't understand how you got there, it will be suspect. You may know a meeting with one of the interest groups was perfectly legitimate, but other groups, who don't know what went on, may question it. You may know that the final decision carefully considered all points of view, but if that consideration was not documented, people may still believe that "it was made in a smoke-filled room."

The only way to establish the credibility of your program is to create complete visibility for everything you do. If you know, for example, that there will be six months of analysis and report preparation before the next major contact with the community, you will need to devise some method to ensure that what occurs remains visible to the public. You might use an advisory committee to work with you during that period, or you might periodically circulate a newsletter, but somehow you must avoid letting the process go "underground" where it can't be seen and therefore can contribute to suspicion.

3. If you are not "selling," you don't have to be defensive. Many people find that during their initial experiences with community involvement they often feel on the defensive--defending the airport proprietor, defending other agencies, defending a proposed action, etc. Yet defensiveness is a major barrier in community involvement, communicating to the public that you are willing to listen to ideas only as long as they are in support of the project, and setting up an adversary relationship with anyone who is critical.

One reason this is most likely to occur the first few times community involvement is tried is that, most often, community involvement is begun on a controversial issue in which the agency already has a proposed action, such as a proposed runway extension. The implication of this is that the agency is in a "selling" posture, it believes it knows what is "good" in the situation, and is using community involvement to push its own point of view. This will usually accomplish two things: 1) The public will "turn off" to community involvement, believing it is a new-fangled approach to the agency's doing what it wants to do anyway, and/or 2) agency personnel will get defensive because they will be in a "selling" posture, and therefore have to defend the agency's proposal, the agency's integrity, and the sincerity of the community involvement effort, etc.

If you do have a loyalty to the proposed project, there is always some danger of being defensive. Bear in mind, however, that defending typically creates antagonism and doesn't convince people of a program's worth. If you start community involvement with a proposal to sell, or with a predetermined result you want to come out of the program, you will almost surely guarantee that you will find yourself defensive. You will also be undermining the credibility of community involvement for those situations when you genuinely do want the public's help.

4. Know the limits of professional expertise. Professional training may make professionals the best qualified to develop alternative solutions or estimate the impacts of alternatives.

But when it comes down to choosing between alternatives, the decision inevitably involves value judgements about what is good or bad, the way things "ought" to be. At the level of values the professional is like every other human being with his/her own opinions, biases, standards. In a democracy these opinions, biases, and standards are not "more equal" than those of other citizens. When the limits of professional expertise are recognized by the professional, the public will typically learn to value the professional as a source of information about what is possible, and what the consequences of various actions will be. But when the professional uses his/her professional expertise to push their own values or philosophy, then the public will frequently challenge and question them in all areas, including the areas in which they could have made a technical contribution.

5. Use professional expertise to create options, not close them. It is essential that people conducting community involvement operate in such a way that their professional expertise is used to help the public figure out what they can do to solve a problem, rather than using their expertise to constantly tell the public what they cannot do. Since the public is frequently not sophisticated about technical or economic feasibility, and certainly cannot be aware of the maze of agency authorities, limitations, etc., it can be easy to slip into a posture of constantly telling the public what they cannot do. But the result is frustration and resentment by the public, and a belief that you are simply selling your own point of view. A comparable experience is the occasional personnel or procurement person who cite the rather complicated requirements of the bureaucracy in such a way that they seem to other people to be using the system to prevent any action. Yet a skilled administrative person often prides himself/herself on the ability to always find a way within the system to get an important job done. It is this latter attitude which must also be communicated to the public. While there are limits of feasibility, legal mandates, etc., the public must get the feeling that the professional is using that expertise to find solutions, to be responsive to the public's needs.
6. Learning to speak the public's language. Every technical specialty and every bureaucracy quickly develops a vocabulary of words that are understood by others in the group and are economic and efficient to use because the definitions have been previously agreed upon, so that a kind of "shorthand" communication takes place. The problem is that to the public this language often seems more like it is a deliberate technique used to exclude the public and to limit their full participation. A discussion of the responsibilities of the "ATCT Chief" with regard to implementation of a "preferential runway system" or "displaced threshold" may be lost at the outset if not reduced

to terms understandable to the individual citizen who lives under the path of a particular "air traffic pattern." The obligation to translate this jargon into language understandable to the public is clearly the aviation industry's. The public cannot be expected to learn the language of aviation as the price of admission to decisionmaking.

At times the implications of this relatively simple premise are not minor. Many people beginning community involvement programs have found it extremely difficult to locate technical people able to translate technical reports into simple, everyday English. There seems to be a shortage of "translators" within most organizations. The implication of learning to speak the public's language requires changes in habitual ways of talking, training in public speaking or report writing, and occasional hiring of new employees with special skills in presenting complex technical ideas to the public in ways they can understand and respond to.

7. Feelings are a rich source of information about people's values, philosophies, their sense of the way things "ought" to be. Frequently technical people approach community involvement with comments like "we want quality data from the public." The bias inherent in this remark is that only hard, factual, logical, rational information is welcome from the public. But in fact this is simply another instance of setting up qualifications before people are allowed to participate. The more that only factual, rational data is accepted and "feelings" are excluded, the more community involvement will be limited to a few highly-organized lobbies with staff who can learn to present their comments in ways that impress you. The more you reach out to less organized interests and concerns, the more you will hear feelings, biases, concerns, without a lot of supporting data to sustain them. Yet people are doing the thing they can do best--they are telling you the way things "ought" to be, the philosophies or values which should guide actions. It is your job then, to translate those philosophies into alternatives, and provide an analysis of the implications of these alternatives. It is possible that when faced with these implications, the public may modify or moderate its opinions, but it is your job to take their initial feelings and carry them through in an objective and professional manner to the point that the implications are visible.
8. Identify the limits of your decisionmaking mandate. The public often has unrealistic expectations of the decision-making authority that any one organization has. This division of authority is particularly true within aviation. Also, the person conducting the community involvement program is frequently not the decisionmaker, so that the community involvement process results in a "recommendation" to the decisionmaker. It

is extremely important that limits on authority and mandates that are shared with other organizations are identified from the beginning with the public. This will not eliminate all the problems of unrealistic expectations, but at least it will reduce the risks of taking the public by surprise as well as the consequences when these limits are experienced.

9. Break out of the traditional ways of doing things. Community involvement is a new and exciting field. It is still definitely at the stage of an art form, not a science. It is important during these early stages to be experimental and try various approaches and techniques. Community involvement can be an exciting challenge rather than a threatening new obligation.

CHAPTER 4: DESIGNING A COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT PROGRAM

There is no single approach to community involvement that will be the best for all situations. The kind of community involvement program you need depends on the level of interest in the study you're conducting, the geographical area in which you are working, e.g. size, urbanization, etc., and the historic relationship between the project or airport and the surrounding community. It can be equally inappropriate to design a major community involvement effort for a minor study as to have minimal community involvement for a major conflict. This chapter will provide a "thought process" which will lead you through certain basic steps that can help you design a community involvement program appropriate to your situation.

The first principle in designing effective community involvement is that there must be an integration between the community involvement activities and the decisionmaking process. Community involvement activities must be carefully scheduled with other elements of the decisionmaking process, such as technical studies, to insure that the timing of information both to and from the public will result in the needed expression of public comment at those points in the decisionmaking process where it can make the greatest contribution. Put another way: community involvement activities should be designed so that progression through the various stages of the planning or decisionmaking process cannot take place without certain well-defined interactions with the public.

A "THOUGHT PROCESS"

A series of steps, or a "thought process," has been described below which can assist in insuring this integration, and assist in establishing a context for selecting community involvement techniques appropriate to the unique requirements of your situation.

1. Clearly identify the steps in the decisionmaking process.
The first step is to be sure that you have a clear understanding of what the natural stages or steps are in your own planning or decisionmaking process. The purpose of defining specific steps is to insure that signposts have been established which enable development of a time schedule for the points at which information must be communicated to the public, and received from the public. Depending on the kind of study you are conducting, these stages may be well defined. If they are not, the basic stages shown below may assist you in structuring your program.
 - a. Issue Identification/Sensing Public Interest: The purpose of community involvement during this stage is to obtain a clear definition of public needs and concerns. It is also a "sensing" stage during which

an appraisal is made of the intensity of public interest, the kinds of publics most likely to participate, and the kinds of issues which are most likely to generate additional public interest.

- b. Formulation of Alternatives: The formulation of detailed alternatives is normally a consultative process primarily accomplished with other agencies, organized groups, and community leaders. Individuals may be the source of ideas for alternatives, but frequently these ideas may require additional technical work on the part of the sponsoring agency to be developed into full alternatives. Ideas from the public often do not come in the form of technically accurate, detailed alternatives, so fragments and incomplete ideas must be translated into genuine alternatives by technical personnel.
 - c. Evaluation of alternatives: This will normally be the stage at which the greatest participation will occur. Ample opportunities for the public to participate prior to any decision or selection of a preferred alternative should be provided.
 - d. Decisionmaking : The decisionmaking stage may require continued negotiation between those publics and agencies most critically affected by the decision. Once a decision has been made, the agency also has an obligation to inform the public what the decision is, why the alternatives were rejected, and the reasons for the final decision. It is important that the public receive this information promptly after the decision is made, rather than many months later when all technical reports have been completed.
2. Identify the desired outcome of each step in the decision-making process. Once you have defined the steps in your decisionmaking process you now need to define exactly what you want to accomplish--what your "products" or "outputs" should be at each step in the process. Using the four-step process described above, here are some examples of things you might want to accomplish at each step:

ISSUE IDENTIFICATION

- . A definition of the public's perception of the environmental impacts of the project or airport on neighboring communities.
- . A baseline of present conditions.
- . A projection of future project or airport demand.
- . A description of the future conditions which will occur if no action is taken.

FORMULATION OF ALTERNATIVES

- . A list of all alternatives the public would like evaluated.
- . A set of criteria to be used in evaluating alternatives.

EVALUATION OF ALTERNATIVES

- . An understanding of which alternatives are acceptable to the public.
- . An appraisal of the technical feasibility of each alternative.
- . An understanding of the environmental, economic, and social impacts of each alternative.

DECISIONMAKING

- . An appraisal of the institutional restraints on implementation of alternatives.
- . An understanding of the "trade-offs" that different publics and agencies are willing to make.

Keep in mind that these are just examples. You will need to develop your own list of "Desired Outcomes" for the key steps in your decisionmaking process.

3. Identify the Information Exchange which must take place to accomplish this outcome. The Information Exchange consists of the information that must be communicated to the public in order for the public to participate effectively, e.g., environmental conditions, resource capabilities, etc., and the information which must be received from the public if the desired outcome is to be accomplished, e.g., preferences about alternatives, anticipated implementation problems, etc.

The starting place in identifying the Information Exchange Program Element is to begin with an analysis like this: "If the planning task I must accomplish is 'problem identification', what information must I obtain from the publics* to complete that problem identification?" Since you may have several objectives or "outcomes" for each planning stage, you will need to do this same kind of analysis for each objective. In this way you will identify the information which must be acquired from the publics in order to complete each planning task.

But the publics may not be able to respond unless they are first provided with information. If, for example, you were selecting a site for a radar installation, and only a limited number of locations were feasible due to operational requirements-- then the public must be informed of these limitations before they can be expected to contribute to the final selection of

*Publics identified see pgs 23-24, Sec. 4.

the most desirable (or least impacting) site. So the analysis that takes place is: "I want information from the public to help me define possible alternatives (or define the study area, or measure impacts). What information does the public first need from me before they can respond?" Again, this is done for each objective at each planning stage. This analysis results in a statement of what information must be provided to the public to complete each planning task.

To illustrate: If, for a proposed runway expansion, one of your Desired Outcomes is "a description of the future conditions which will occur if no action is taken" then some of the information you may want to get to and from the public might be:

TO THE PUBLIC:

- . Current airport use
- . Projected airport use
- . Implications of this use in traffic, noise, air pollution, etc.

FROM THE PUBLICS

- . Probable future land uses near the airport.
- . Level of "tolerability" of each of the impacts, etc.

If your Desired Outcomes were "an understanding of the 'trade-offs' that different publics and agencies are willing to make," then the information exchange might be:

TO THE PUBLIC

- . The range of technically feasible alternatives
- . The impacts of each alternative

FROM THE PUBLIC

- . The relative importance of the impacts.
- . Which impacts are considered important by which publics.
- . Modifications of alternatives which would make them more acceptable, etc.

Again, you will need to make this kind of analysis for each of the "Desired Outcomes" you identified. You may find that there is some overlap between them. But the critical point is that for you to design an effective community involvement program you must clearly define what it is you want from the public, and what information you must provide the public so they can participate effectively.

4. Identify the publics with whom the information must be exchanged. Once you know the information exchange which must take place you need to decide who the public is with whom this information is to be exchanged. You'll find that you are not dealing with the same public for each issue. If you need to know the impact of an airport upon local communities, the public from which you will be able to get this information will be the residents and leaders of the neighboring communities. If you need information about preferences of people who use an airport, then you need information from a regional public. It's probably already clear that the reason for defining which public you're dealing with is that the community involvement techniques you use will be substantially different if you need information only from neighboring communities, or you need information from a regional public.

The same holds true in communicating information to the public. There is some broad general information--such as the opportunity to participate in your community involvement program--which you will want to communicate to the broadest public possible. But some highly technical information may be of interest only to technical people in other agencies or organized interest groups.

The same public will also not be involved or interested in each step of the decisionmaking process. During relatively technical stages the public may consist primarily of governmental staff, leaders of interest groups, etc. When the information to be obtained from the public is an expression of values or preferences, then a much larger general public will have an interest and should be consulted. For this reason it is often useful to use the term "publics" rather than "the public." By targeting the publics most likely to be involved at each step, it is possible to identify the size and characteristics of this public and establish a context for the kinds of community involvement activities which should be utilized.

The kinds of questions you may want to consider are:

- a. Which publics are capable of providing you with the information you need at this planning stage?

For example, would the information come from people living in the impacted area, from recreationists in the area, from a regional public, or all of them.

- b. Which publics will be able to understand the information you will be providing at this planning stage (and are there different levels of information that need to be provided)?

Is the information you have to communicate so technical, for example, that it can be understood only by other agency personnel, then you either have to find some way of communicating it to a broader public, or your participation will be limited to those who understand it.

- c. How much time and continuity will be required for publics to participate effectively?

The more time and continuity required, the smaller the number of people who can, or will, participate. So if a particular issue requires continuity, you will be restricted to a smaller number of participants.

- d. Whose participation is required for "visibility" or "political acceptability?"

For example, are there some groups whose participation must be solicited, such as a neighborhood group, if your program is going to be believable?

Additional information on targeting the publics for a community involvement program is provided in Chapter 5.

5. Identify the techniques--and the sequence of use of these techniques--to accomplish the required exchange of information with the appropriate publics. The four steps above provide a framework within which community involvement techniques can be selected. At this point in the "thought process," it should be possible to know:

- a. What information must be communicated to the public.
- b. Which publics must receive this information.
- c. What information must be received from the public.
- d. From which publics this information can be obtained.

This information will provide you with a broad general context in which to evaluate specific community involvement techniques, and develop a detailed plan or sequence of activities. Although this provides a general framework, you will also have to consider factors which are unique to your situation such as:

- a. The level of acceptance or comfort with community involvement by the decisionmakers.
- b. The historical relationship between the project or airport and the neighborhood communities.

- c. Existing mechanisms--such as neighborhood councils--which already exist for community involvement.
- d. Level of interest in this particular study.
- e. Cultural differences among the various participants.
- f. Demographics, e.g., size of the study area, population affected, life-style of the possible participants, etc.

Chapters 6-9 are designed to provide you with more detailed information about community involvement techniques and the circumstances under which different techniques are appropriate.

6. Identify ways to coordinate your community involvement activities for maximum effect. Once you have settled on certain basic techniques--such as those outlined in Chapters 6-9--you next need to ensure that the timing and sequence of these techniques are coordinated for maximum effect. This is easiest to illustrate with an example. Suppose you decide to hold a series of workshops in neighborhood communities. You may have decided to do this because: 1) The information you need is available only from local communities, 2) You want to use a meeting format where people have a sense of really having produced something, not just expressed themselves, and 3) Workshops are small enough so you can begin to get to know people in the community personally. All this makes sense.

But now you want to ensure the maximum effect from your workshops. So you'll want to consider using a whole range of other techniques for enhancement purposes. Examples might be:

- . A press release or spot announcement about the workshops.
- . A visit to local newspapers to arrange for feature stories about the workshops.
- . Presentations (such as a slide show) for civic clubs and interest groups to stir interest in the workshops.
- . Paid advertising in newspapers, radio and TV.
- . A contest or event to attract interest in your community involvement program.
- . Publicity arranged through the interest groups themselves.
- . Working with an advisory group to develop the workshop format and review publications.
- . Preparation of handouts for workshop participants.

- . Personal invitations to community leaders to attend the workshops.
- . A response form for distribution during the workshop.
- . Preparation of a slide show or video show to explain important concepts to workshop participants.
- . Press releases or feature stories discussing the results of the workshops.

The list could go on. The point is that by employing some of the techniques above--as appropriate to your situation--you can increase the attendance, interest, and effectiveness of your workshops. Each technique is effective because it is linked with the others in a coordinated and integrated manner.

A form summarizing this "thought process" is provided on the next page. You may want to use this form in designing your next community involvement program.

THOUGHT PROCESS FOR DESIGNING COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT PROGRAMS

PLANNING STAGE	DESIRED OUTCOME	INFORMATION TO PUBLIC	INFORMATION FROM PUBLIC	SCOPE OF PUBLICS	COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT TECHNIQUES
ISSUE IDENTIFICATION	Examples: Identify public concerns. Project future conditions.	Examples: Current airport use Projected airport use	Examples: Probable future land use near the airport Impacts of the airport on neighborhood communities	Publics to be informed: Examples: Neighborhood groups Airport users Other agencies Publics from which information obtained Examples: Other agencies Neighborhood groups Airport users	Examples: Interviews News Releases Newsletters
POPULATION OF ALTERNATIVES:	Examples: Alternative philosophies of what should be done. Brainstorming list of possible actions.	Examples: Possible Actions Operational Limitations	Examples: Possible actions. What the public thinks "should" be done.	Publics to be informed: Publics from which information obtained	Examples: Workshops Speaking Engagements Field Office
EVALUATION OF ALTERNATIVES	Examples: Sources of impacts. Amount of impact. Preferences	Examples: The range of technically feasible alternatives Impacts of the alternatives (based on research)	Examples: The relative importance of the impacts Acceptability of the alternatives	Publics to be informed: Publics from which information obtained:	Examples: Meetings TV Appearances Newsletters Workshops
DECISION-MAKING	Examples: Institutional arrangements for implementing the decision. Fulfilling commitments from sponsoring agencies.	Examples: Proposed solution, and reasons for it. Reasons other alternatives considered less appropriate	Examples: Acceptability of proposed solution Institutional problems in implementing proposed solution.	Publics to be informed: Publics from which information obtained:	Examples: Meetings Press Releases Arbitration

CHAPTER 5: WHO IS THE PUBLIC?

When we talk about community involvement, we are really defining "the community," or "the public" as any individual, interest group, organization, or governmental agency other than the sponsor of the community involvement effort. Yet obviously if you are designing a community involvement program for a regional airport, you can't reasonably expect several million people to participate. During the development of the Sea-Tac Communities Plan (described in Chapter 2) which was an ambitious community involvement effort, approximately 3,000 people participated by attending meetings, completing a questionnaire, or participating in a task force. Many thousands more received newsletters or watched a television show, which described the program, but participated in no other way. But of the 3,000 who did participate actively, only several hundred (at the most) participated in a continuous way. Yet at the end of the process, the agencies involved, and the community at large generally accepted that a consensus had been reached. Clearly the concept of "the public" needs some elaboration.

THE CONCEPT OF PUBLICS

The first principle in defining "the public" is to realize that "the public" doesn't exist except as an aggregate of many, many publics. "The public" doesn't exist any more than does the "average family" with 2.1 children. Though both concepts are useful, they don't reflect reality (there aren't many families with 2.1 children). In fact, most of us belong to a wide variety of publics, rather than a single public. Some of the characteristics which may define us as members of particular publics could include: Sex, race, type of employment, religious affiliation, political preference, the community in which we live, avocation/recreation interests, educational background, membership in professional or labor groups, support of a particular athletic team, etc., etc. In other words, we all have a number of affiliations of varying degrees of importance. The degree to which we identify ourselves as a member of that public changes with circumstances, and the emotional significance of that affiliation to us. The fact that someone lives in a particular neighborhood may have relatively low significance, for example, until it is discovered the neighborhood might be impacted by noise if a new runway is built. Some publics may be relatively well-organized, e.g., a political party, a professional association, or a social group. Others are relatively unorganized and become noticeable only when they are strongly affected by a particular issue. As a result it is far more feasible to talk in terms of publics rather than "the public" to remind ourselves that we are in fact dealing with many interests and groups rather than a single monolithic body.

THE CONCEPT OF "THE VOCAL MINORITY/THE SILENT MAJORITY"

It is a common complaint that too many decisions are made by "the vocal minority", since it is an observable phenomenon that most political decisions are made by a minority of actively involved and interested citizens. In recent years it has been argued that it is "the silent majority" which is not being listened to. Usually the concept of "the silent majority" is used as a justification for going against the demands of the active minority. Thus a politician, an agency, or an interest group may claim, "If we could just hear from the 'silent majority'then it would be clear that our policies have the support of the people." This is a rather circular argument, of course, because as long as people remain silent no one can contradict the claim, and anybody who speaks up is no longer a member of "the silent majority." In fact, "the silent majority" is another mythical beast which does not exist and rests on the assumption that somehow, because people are silent, they are totally in agreement. In reality, it is far safer to assume that the silent majority contains just as many diverse opinions as does the active minority, but that the silent majority has chosen not to participate, either because they do not see the issue as having much impact on them, or they do not believe that they can affect the outcome.

It should also be remembered that the "silent majority" is not a fixed class of people. All of us make choices about when to participate, so we may choose to be part of the vocal minority on one issue, be a member of the silent majority on several others. In other words, the membership of the vocal minority and the silent majority are constantly changing. When we say that we have a "controversial" issue, all we are saying is that the vocal minority is relatively large for this particular issue.

There has been considerable research on the reasons that people choose not to participate, and the three reasons most often cited in the research are:

1. They feel adequately represented in the active minority - Leaders of visible interest groups often serve as "surrogates" for a much larger group of people who feel represented by the activities of that interest group. Most of us belong to some group in which we do little more than send our annual dues in order that that group will represent our particular interests. A case in point might be a professional group. Residents of a neighborhood near an airport may not participate because they feel represented by a neighborhood group. Because of this "surrogate" role, special interest groups are an integral and necessary part of an effective operating democracy.
2. People are unaware that they have a stake in a particular decision - We all choose to involve ourselves on those issues which we see as having a major impact on our personal lives. We also make choices between those issues which we see as having relatively major impacts, vs. those whose impacts are

relatively minor. We may be so busy earning a living, for example, that a state aviation master plan may seem very abstract and unrelated to our lives. In effect, every citizen also has the right to choose not to participate.

3. People don't believe they can affect the decision - If people don't believe their participation will make a difference, they won't participate. One of the major responsibilities in a community involvement program is to make clear how people can influence a decision, and show clear connections between the public's participation and the outcome.

In summary, it is probably inevitable that community involvement programs will be dealing primarily with a relatively small number of highly motivated and affected citizens and groups. Naturally it is important to maintain public information efforts so that a much broader public is aware that the study is taking place, and aware of their opportunity to participate. Because community involvement programs do inevitably deal primarily with the minority, there are certain obligations that every community involvement program has to the broader majority. These include:

1. To inform as broad a segment of the public as possible of the stake they may have in the issue under study, e.g., informing air travelers of the possible impacts of curfew hours.
2. To clearly inform the public how they can participate in the study, and how their participation will influence the outcome, e.g., news stories describing upcoming activities.
3. To systematically target publics in the community involvement program to insure that the active minority is representative--in terms of values and interests--of the broader majority, i.e., that all points of view are involved in your program.

TARGETING THE PUBLIC

One implication of the observations above is that "the public" varies from issue to issue, study to study. The number of people who will see themselves as sufficiently affected by a particular decision will vary from decision to decision. A neighborhood group which is very interested in environmental issues, may be very disinterested with your "Unified Work Program." As indicated in the "thought process" outlined in the last chapter, one of the steps in designing an effective community involvement program is to systematically identify the publics who are most likely to see themselves as affected at each step of the planning or decision-making process. One of the difficulties is that the degree to which people feel affected by a particular decision is a result of their subjective perception: One individual may feel severely impacted by an airport activity, at the same time that his neighbor does not. However, the starting point always remains an effort to objectively analyze the likelihood

that someone will feel affected by the study or decision. For an airport project some of the bases on which people are most likely to feel affected are:

1. Proximity: People who live in the immediate area of an airport and are likely to be affected by noise, vibrations, fuel odors, traffic congestion, property value impacts, or possibly even threat of dislocation, are the most obvious publics to be included in the study. The more directly people experience these impacts, the less likely they are willing to be represented by a group--such as a neighborhood association--and the more likely they are to want to participate personally.
2. Economic: Groups that have economic advantages or jobs at stake, e.g., airlines, airline pilots, and people employed at the airport, are again an obvious starting point in any analysis of possible publics.
3. Use: Those people who use an airport are also potential publics who may wish to participate in the community involvement program. One difficulty in community involvement programs--for which there is no easy solution--is determining who represents the airport user.
4. Social: Airports often have a direct effect in changing the character of the neighborhood immediately surrounding the airport. People who see airports as a threat to the social and environmental conditions of the local neighborhoods may be interested in planning efforts surrounding the airport.
5. Values: Some groups may only be indirectly affected by the first four criteria, but believe that the issues raised in a study directly affect their values, their "sense of the way things ought to be." Any time a study touches on such issues as free enterprise vs. government control, or jobs vs. environmental enhancement, there will be a number of individuals who will participate primarily because of these issues of values. Others will participate whenever tax dollars are at stake.

While the above categories may already begin to suggest publics that you would want to include in a community involvement program, there are a number of other specific resources you may want to tap in targeting the public. These include:

1. Self-Identification: Stories about the study in the newspaper, radio, or TV, the distribution of brochures and newsletters, and well-publicized public meetings are all means of encouraging self-identification. Anyone who participates by attending the meeting or writing a letter or phoning for information has clearly indicated an interest in being an active public in the study. Brochures and reports should also contain some sort of response form so that people can indicate an interest in participating.

2. Third-Party Identification: One of the best ways to obtain information about other interests or individuals who should be included in the study is to ask representatives of known interests for their suggestions. You might, for example, conduct interviews with neighborhood group representatives, inquiring who else they believe should be consulted. Also, all response forms attached to reports, brochures, or newsletters should request suggestions of other groups or individuals who might be interested in the study.
3. Staff Identification: If you are on the staff of an airport proprietor, you will undoubtedly find that many other staff representatives are aware of individuals or groups who have concerns about airport issues. This may be due to participation in past studies, complaints received on noise or other environmental issues, or personal contacts in the local communities. As a result, one of the richest sources of information about possible individuals and groups who may be interested in participating will be your own internal staff.
4. Lists of Groups or Individuals: There are numerous lists available which could assist in targeting the publics. These lists include:
 - . Yellow pages
 - . Chamber of Commerce lists
 - . Lists of associations or neighborhood groups
 - . City and county directories
 - . Direct mailing lists of groups of various types (these must be purchased)
 - . Lists maintained by Sociology/Political Science Departments
5. Historical records: There may be considerable information in your own old files. This includes:
 - . Noise complaints
 - . Lists of previous participants in earlier studies
 - . Correspondence files
 - . Library files on past projects
6. Newspaper Library: A review of newspaper clippings may reveal names of individuals or groups who have participated in aviation-related studies previously, or who have expressed opinions about the area of your concern, such as airport operations.

7. Consultation with other agencies: Staff of a number of agencies may have information about publics interested in aviation issues. These might include: FAA, airport proprietor, airlines, city and county planning and zoning authorities, State Aviation Office, etc. In addition, many other agencies such as the U.S. Forest Service, Bureau of Reclamation, and the U.S. Department of Transportation are currently conducting community involvement or citizen participation efforts, and as a result may be in touch with influential community leaders who might also be included in your studies.
8. User Survey: One possible community involvement technique is to conduct a survey of users of your facility. If this survey is conducted near the beginning of a community involvement program, it can also be used to identify individuals or groups who would like to participate in the study.

[NOTE: There are major limitations on surveys conducted by federal agencies. See Chapter 9.]

IDENTIFYING PUBLICS AT EACH STAGE OF PLANNING

As indicated in the previous chapter, the same publics are not necessarily involved in each stage of planning. Some stages of planning require public review from the broadest range of publics possible. Other stages require a degree of continuity in understanding of the technical data base which tends to limit participation to a "leadership" group. This "leadership" could consist of individuals who are knowledgeable in the field and have defined leadership roles in environmental, business or civic groups. Some people are seen as leaders because they are advocates for a particular position, while others are seen as leaders precisely because they are viewed as "objective" or "reasonable."

There should be no attempt to exclude broader publics during those planning stages which require continuity and an understanding of the technical data, however, the community involvement techniques used during those stages are likely to be aimed at smaller numbers of people. For example, when continuity is needed an advisory group may be a particularly useful technique. When there is a need for broad public evaluation of alternatives, then public meetings, newsletters, workshops, etc. may be more useful techniques.

In thinking through which publics need to be involved at specific stages of the planning process it may be useful to identify the different levels of "publics," such as:

1. Staff of other federal, state, and local governmental agencies.
2. Elected officials at levels of government.
3. Highly visible leaders of organized groups or identifiable interests, e.g., air transport association, airline pilots' associations, neighborhood groups, etc.

4. Membership of organized groups or identifiable interests, e.g., residents in proximity of the airport, airport users, etc.
5. "General" public not identified with organized groups.

At different stages of the planning process all five groups may need to be involved, at other stages only a few of these levels will be targeted. To avoid the dangers of producing an "elitist" community involvement program, any planning stage during which you have worked primarily with the "leadership" publics should be followed by a more general review by broader publics. Even though you may want to work with "leadership" publics because of their technical background, for both visibility and political acceptability it is necessary that you also work with a much broader public.

By "targeting" the various publics at each stage of the decisionmaking process, you are then in a position to select appropriate community involvement techniques to reach these particular publics.

A major reference in identifying the publics is: Willeke, Gene E., Identification of Publics in Water Resources Planning, OWRR Project B-095-GA, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA 30332, Sept. 1974.

PART II: COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT TECHNIQUES

This section contains guidance on community involvement techniques which may be useful on aviation issues. Chapters 6-8 cover some of the most frequently used techniques--Chapter 6: Designing Effective Meetings, Chapter 7: Working with Advisory Committees, Chapter 8: Working with the Media--while Chapter 9 contains a short catalogue of other useful techniques. Chapter 10 presents a hypothetical example of a community involvement program. Chapter 11 is an annotated bibliography covering other sources of information on community involvement.

CHAPTER 6: DESIGNING EFFECTIVE MEETINGS

The public meeting is by far the most widely used, and publicly accepted, form of community involvement. It has a venerable history in this country going back to the New England Town Meeting.

Public meetings can either be exciting, stimulating and informative, or boring, frustrating and a waste of time. The amount of care and attention you take in designing public meetings can determine how effective they will be.

Why Hold a Meeting?:

Public meetings serve a variety of purposes. They are an opportunity to inform the public in detail. They provide a mechanism for citizens to hear other people's ideas and discuss them. They provide the means for resolution of differences of opinion. They afford visibility to the decisionmaking process.

On the other hand, meetings can be fruitless if they are not carefully integrated into the decisionmaking process. Meetings can be unproductive if held so early in the planning process that you don't really have anything yet to discuss. Meetings can be a waste of time if the public could be as adequately informed by a report or brochure. Meetings can be a waste of time if there is no need for citizens to hear the viewpoints of other citizens. And meetings are particularly a waste of time if they are held after decisions are made, rather than at a point in time where the public comment will have an influence upon the decision.

Types of Meetings:

There are many types of meetings--far more than most meeting designers realize. In fact, the heavy reliance on the public hearing format (one very limited type of meeting) for all purposes is a major reason why many people view public meetings as ineffective.

Among the major types of public meetings are:

1. Public Hearings - These are formal meetings with a hearing officer and meet legal requirements for public notice. A verbatim public record is usually maintained by a court stenographer. Participants make formal public statements, often accompanied by written submissions, with little or no interaction between the various participants. Because public hearings often draw a large crowd, leaders of various interest groups frequently feel obliged to make emotional defenses of their groups' positions, often taking positions more extreme than the leader would express privately or in a small group.

2. Large Group Format - Even if a crowd is large it is possible to conduct a large public meeting without the formal trappings of a public hearing. In a public hearing, for example, the list of speakers is often established at the beginning of the meeting, so that speakers make their presentation when called on regardless of the comments of the person who immediately preceded them. It is still possible in a large public meeting to allow people to interact by speaking upon recognition of a raised hand, or other less formal means of allowing interaction. A great deal of the difference between a public hearing and other large group formats is the degree of formality with which the meeting leader conducts the meeting. Even if a crowd is large, a skilled meeting leader can create a sense of interaction between the participants.
3. Large Group/Small Group Format - If real discussion is desired, even if the crowd is large, it is possible to break a large crowd into smaller discussion groups, which then report back to the larger group at the end of the meeting. A typical format for this kind of meeting would be:
 - a. A thirty-minute presentation describing the technical background of the study and the issue to be posed before the smaller groups.
 - b. One to two hours of small group discussion.
 - c. Reports from each discussion group of their opinions or findings.

The small group discussion provides everyone an opportunity to participate intensively, and reporting back to the large group provides a feeling of representation within the total body.
4. Panel Format - An alternative method of creating interaction is to select a panel of representatives of different viewpoints who discuss an issue from their point of view, followed either by questions from the audience, or small group discussions. One variant of the panel format which is usable if complex technical information exists is the "Meet the Press" format. In this format a group of reporters is pre-selected to question the technical experts just as occurs in the "Meet the Press" television program. The technical expert will make a brief statement, followed by questions from the reporters, followed in turn either by questions from the audience or small group discussions. Since reporters are often skilled interviewers, this often serves to identify the critical issues, and communicate the technical information in a way which is relevant to the public.
5. Workshops - Workshops are usually held for smaller audiences, 25-35 people, and differ from the large group/small group

format in that workshops usually have a specific task or goal to be accomplished. Workshop tasks might include:

- a. Defining alternative actions for the project,
- b. Evaluating a set of alternatives, or
- c. Identifying the economic, energy, environmental and social impacts of the alternatives.

As a result, rather than a general discussion, workshops are characterized as a concerted effort to complete a specific assignment.

6. Coffee Klatch/Kitchen Meeting

meet in the private homes of people in the local community, with crowds of no more than 15-20 people. Typically these meetings are quite informal, with participants drinking coffee and eating refreshments while discussing the issues. Because these meetings are held in private homes, people are more likely to discuss issues person-to-person, rather than in the context of official representatives of specific interests.

7. Charrette - This is a very intensive form of workshop, usually held in an effort to resolve differences between all major interest groups. This technique is described in some detail in Chapter 9.

Selecting a Meeting Format:

In order to choose between these types of meetings, and develop a detailed format, it is necessary first of all to define exactly what you want to accomplish from the meeting. The guiding principle of meeting design is that the format should reflect the purpose of the meeting. There are five basic functions which meetings can serve, although a single meeting may serve more than one of these functions. The five basic functions are:

1. Information Giving: The agency possesses the information and must communicate it in some manner to the public, e.g., announcing the context of a proposed noise rule.
2. Information Receiving: In this case the public possesses the information, which could include public perceptions of needs, problems, values, impacts, or reactions to alternatives. In this case the agency must acquire the information held by the public.
3. Interaction: Interaction involves both information giving and information receiving. It also serves the additional purpose of allowing people to test their ideas on the sponsoring agency or other publics. As a result of this interaction people may modify their viewpoints.

4. Consensus Forming/Negotiation: Over and beyond interaction, some meetings are directed towards developing agreement on a single plan or course of action.
5. Summarizing: This is the need at the end of a long process to publicly acknowledge the agreements or decisions that have been reached and reiterate the positions of the different groups towards these agreements.

Each of these functions in turn establishes limitations on the kind of meeting format that is possible if the function is to be served. A few of these limitations and implications are shown below:

1. Information Giving: In information giving the information must flow from the agency to all the various publics, so it is appropriate to have a meeting format which primarily allows for presentations from the agency, with questions from the audience. This means that the classic meeting, with one person at the front of the room making a presentation to an audience in rows, may be a suitable format for this function.
2. Information Receiving: When the function is reversed and the need is to obtain information from the public, then having one person stand at the front of the room addressing an entire audience is an extremely inefficient and uneconomical means of obtaining information. Many more comments could be received from the public, for example, if the audience were broken into small groups and comments were recorded on flipcharts or on 3 X 5 cards.
3. Interaction : Interaction, by its very nature, usually requires that an audience be broken down into groups small enough so that there is time and opportunity for individuals to exchange information and ideas and discuss them all thoroughly. Large public meetings typically provide nothing more than minimal opportunities for interaction. As a result the large group/small group, workshop, or coffee klatch formats are more suitable for interaction.
4. Consensus Forming/Negotiation: Like interaction, consensus forming/negotiation also requires extensive two-way communication and usually must be accomplished in some form of small group. In addition, the requirement for consensus formation usually means that some procedure is utilized which assists the group in working towards a single agreed-upon plan rather than in allowing simply for an open discussion with no specific product. Some relatively structured format, such as a workshop or charrette, is more suitable for this function.
5. Summarizing: Since the function of summarizing is to provide visibility of the entire process which has taken place, it may again be suitable to use large public meetings as the means to

serve the summarizing function. In this way individuals and groups can be seen taking positions and describing their involvement in the planning process which has preceded this meeting.

Several other factors should be taken into consideration in selecting a meeting format. These include:

1. Anticipated Audience Size: If the audience is anticipated to number in the hundreds this may dictate the meeting format. Remember, though, even a large audience can be broken into small discussion groups if that is the kind of meeting you need, and if the meeting facility is chosen carefully.
2. Intensity of Interest in the Issue: If people are highly interested in the topic, they are more willing to participate in workshops or other intense formats, rather than a more passive form of interface.
3. Degree of Controversy: If an issue is extremely controversial, and the agency is somewhat suspect, then the public may resist being broken down into small groups, feeling that it is an attempt on the part of the agency to manipulate by "dividing and conquering." Also meetings should not be designed in which all "issue opponents" or all "pro-aviation" people are segregated into homogeneous groups for discussion. This has a tendency to reinforce the antagonism between the groups and further polarize positions.

Time and Place of Meetings:

Meetings should be held at a time and place convenient to the public, with the convenience of staff as a secondary consideration. Usually this means that meetings will be held in the evening, although some circumstances will allow for afternoon meetings. If a meeting is aimed primarily at representatives of other governmental agencies or interests, then daytime meetings may be preferable.

One of the first considerations in selecting a meeting place should be whether or not the facilities are adequate for the meeting format which you wish to utilize. (See the section on Seating Arrangements below.) You may also want the meeting to be held away from the agency headquarters, on "neutral" ground. Other issues which you should consider in selecting a meeting place would include:

- a. Central location
- b. Public transportation access
- c. Suitable parking
- d. Safety of the area

Pre-Meeting Publicity:

If a meeting is aimed at a relatively small group, on an invitational basis, then pre-meeting publicity will be quite limited. But if a meeting is an effort to reach the broad general public, then a major element that should be considered will be the adequacy of the pre-meeting publicity. Among the pre-meeting publicity techniques which you may wish to employ are included the following:

- . Issue a press release/spot announcement.
- . Place an announcement in the Federal Register.
- . Develop a press kit or technical summary for the press.
- . Visit members of the press to arrange for feature stories.
- . Purchase display advertising or radio and TV announcements.
- . Have community organizations and interest groups advertise the meeting to their own membership.
- . Have a community organization sponsor the meeting.

Your Public Information or Public Affairs Officer--if you have one--may be able to provide you with other ideas.

Meeting Logistics:

There are numerous logistical issues which must be taken care of if the meeting is to be a success. To assist you in identifying these issues, a Public Meeting Checklist is attached at the end of this chapter. This checklist is taken from a guide on effective public meetings which is distributed by the Environmental Protection Agency.*

Seating Arrangements:

The seating arrangements of a meeting are a direct reflection of the type of meeting which you wish to hold. Room arrangements reflect the relationship between participants. For example, in Figure A (p.42) one can quickly see that the source of all information is the individuals at the front of the room. This seating arrangement establishes a relationship in which all participants talk to the meeting leaders at the front of the room, rather than to each other. As a result, this seating arrangement may be useful and appropriate in a situation where the major function of the meeting is information giving, but if you would like to encourage interaction between participants, then you will want to change this seating arrangement. One alternative would be Figure B., which allows people in the audience to see each other more easily, and microphones are placed throughout the room so that people do not have to come to the

*Guide 1 Effective Public Meetings by James F. Ragan, Jr., available from U. S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Public Affairs, A-107 Washington, D. C.

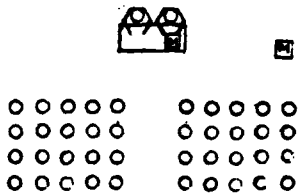


Figure A

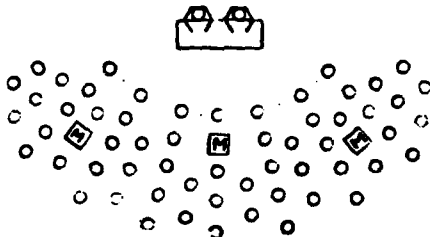


Figure B.

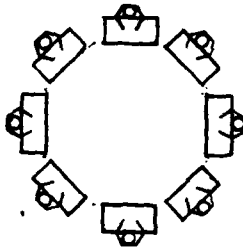


Figure C

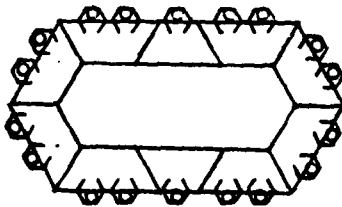


Figure D

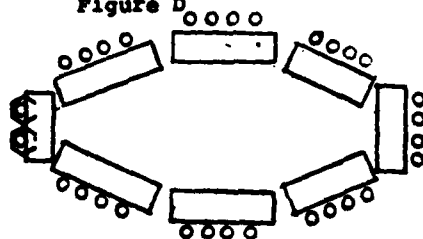


Figure E

Microphone

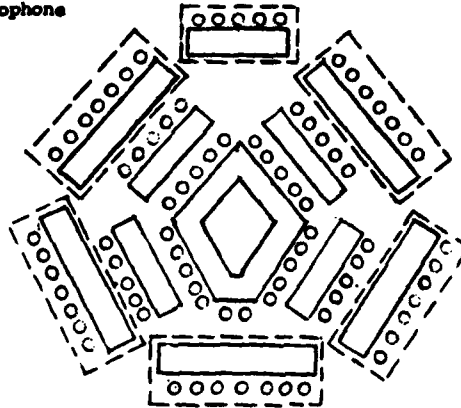


Figure F

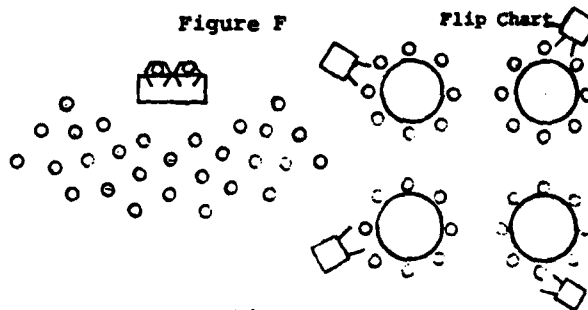


Figure G

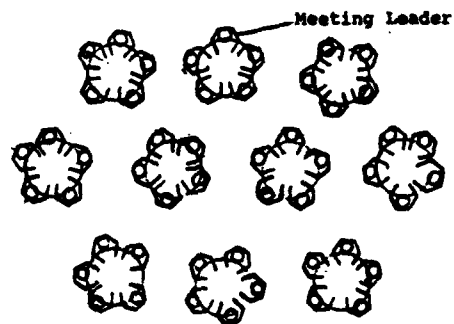


Figure H

front of the room in order to participate. The ideal arrangements for interaction or consensus forming/negotiation are the nearly circular formations shown in Figures C., D., & E. The major differences between these formations are the number of participants and the kinds of tables which are available. If there are a large number of individuals but you still wish to retain the conditions for interaction, then an arrangement such as that as shown in Figure F. would be appropriate. The seating arrangement shown in Figure G. is appropriate for the large group/small group format. The audience first meets in a general assembly shown in the left of the diagram, and then adjourns to the circular tables for the small group discussions. If no room is available which will accommodate this many tables and chairs, then it may be useful to hold the meeting in a school where the large meeting can be in an assembly hall, with small group discussions in classrooms. An alternative format which can be used when there will be small discussion groups is shown in Figure H. This accommodates both small discussion groups as well as a general session, with people simply remaining in their seats at the circular tables during the general session.

Naturally there are numerous variations in all the configurations shown above. These examples simply serve to illustrate that seating arrangements are a significant part of the meeting format. Hopefully these alternatives will encourage you to consider the most appropriate seating arrangements for the type of meeting you wish, rather than adopting the traditional seating format only because it is habitual.

Meeting Leadership:

The leadership style chosen by the meeting leader is also a major component in the over-all effectiveness of the meeting. Even if great care has been taken to design the meeting format most appropriate for the interaction, with a seating arrangement that tends to encourage interaction; if the meeting is led in a rigid, authoritarian manner, public reaction to the agency may still be negative. If a meeting is run in a highly authoritarian manner, then the public has little stake in maintaining order--their needs may be best met by disorder--so that a heavy-handed approach in fact may lead to loss of control. If the style of meeting leadership is such that participants feel consulted and believe the meeting is being run on behalf of everybody, then the participants have a substantial stake in maintaining order and supporting any procedural suggestions of the leader. The critical element in effective meeting leadership appears to be the belief by the audience that the meeting is "theirs" rather than just the agency's. When participants consider the meeting to be everyone's they are likely to observe ground rules and even assist the meeting leader in maintaining order.

There are definite skills to conducting meetings in a facilitative, rather than authoritarian manner. Locating a person possessing these skills should be a major criterion in selecting the meeting leader. Traditionally agency leaders have always conducted public meetings. But if the agency leader is not also a skilled meeting leader, then it may

be more appropriate to have the agency leader open the meeting, make a short presentation, and then hand the meeting on to someone who is a skilled meeting leader.

Recording Public Comment:

The sponsoring agency needs to keep a record of the comment that was made in the public meeting, and the public wants to know that its comments are in fact being heard. In a public hearing a court reporter keeps a verbatim transcript, which becomes a formal record of the meeting. However this is a very formal procedure, and most publics will never read the public record (for which there is usually a charge). One of the most effective techniques for both keeping a summary of the meeting, and indicating to a public that they are being heard, is to keep a summary of the meeting on a flipchart. The public is able to watch the summary as it is being taken, and are informed that if the summary is inaccurate they may request changes. If possible, the flipchart sheets are then posted on the wall so that people may see a visible record of the meeting. Agencies that have used this method have discovered that the summary is usually far more helpful than reading a verbatim transcript, and also provides a quick record of the meeting which can be distributed to others as a document of the meeting. If a more complete record is needed, a tape recording of the meeting can also be made. But experience indicates that if the flipchart summary is well done, the tapes are rarely needed. One limitation of the flipchart method occurs in very large meetings where the flipchart often cannot be seen by each participant. An overhead projector with a continuous roll of acetate might be used as an alternative. The disadvantage to this approach is that the summary appears on the screen only for a short period of time and then is not visible to the public afterward. A verbatim transcript is still required for a formal public hearing.

Providing Feedback to the Public:

One fundamental rule of meetings is to provide feedback to the public on what you heard. One agency even followed their public meetings by sending out a one to two page report entitled "What We Heard." Other agencies have typed up the flipchart summary of the meeting and distributed it to everyone in attendance, as well as other interested individuals and groups, with requests for additional comments or reactions. Other items that should be addressed in this feedback would include:

1. What will be done with the public comment.
2. Any decisions that have resulted from the meeting.
3. Future opportunities for participation in the community involvement program.

PUBLIC MEETING CHECKLIST

1. Meeting Purpose: _____
2. Meeting Type: _____ Formal _____ Informal
3. Meeting Format: _____
4. Meeting Budget: _____ Prepared _____ Approved
5. Advisory Committee Approval? _____
6. Identifying Potential Participants
Interests identified and categorized? _____
Organizations and individuals identified? _____
7. Meeting Time: _____ Date _____ Hours _____
8. Meeting Place(s): _____

Central location? _____
Public transportation access? _____
Suitable parking? _____
Safe area? _____
Adequate facilities? _____
Rental fee? _____ No _____ Yes \$ _____
Does the rental fee include
Lecterns? _____
Speaker sound system? _____
Blackboards or easels? _____
Projectors? _____
Tape recorders? _____
Chairs? _____
Tables? _____
Meeting room set-up? _____
Meeting room clean-up? _____

9. Meeting Space

Total number of people expected: _____
General session
Seating arrangement type: _____
Adequate space? _____
Discussion session
Number of small groups: _____
Seating arrangement type: _____
Number of people in each group: _____
Adequate space? _____

PUBLIC MEETING CHECKLIST

10. Meeting Sponsorship

Agency? _____

Other Organization? _____

Who? _____

Accepted? _____

11. Leader Selection

Who? _____

Accepted _____

12. Speaker Selection

Identified? _____

Speakers invited? _____

Speakers have accepted? _____

13. Moderator Selection

How many needed? _____

Identified? _____

Moderators invited? _____

Moderators have accepted? _____

14. Agenda Development

Questions developed? _____

Schedule developed? _____

15. Background Information Development

Information to be provided: _____

Graphics identified? _____

Graphics ordered? _____

Graphics received? _____

Written information completed? _____

Distribution Methods: _____

Number of copies: _____

Copies reproduced? _____

Copies distributed? _____

Graphics to be used in oral presentations? _____

___ Yes ___ No

Graphics identified? _____

Graphics ordered? _____

Display equipment ordered? _____

Graphics received? _____

Graphics to be used in discussion groups? _____

___ Yes ___ No

Graphics identified? _____

How many copies? _____

Graphics ordered? _____

Graphics received? _____

PUBLIC MEETING CHECKLIST

16. Publicity

Methods selected: _____

Preparation ordered? _____
Material prepared? _____
Number of copies needed: _____
Material placed and/or distributed? _____
Personal follow-up completed? _____

17. Meeting Arrangements

For the general session
Lecterns, chairs, tables obtained? _____
Speaker system obtained? _____
Projectors/screens obtained? _____
Space for wall displays? _____
Registration table/space? _____
Personnel for registration? _____
Refreshments (and personnel)? _____
Name tags obtained? _____
Room arrangements made? _____
Audio/visual equipment set up? _____
Audio/visual equipment tested? _____
Ventilation/heating adequate? _____

For discussion sessions
Number of easels/blackboards: _____
Easels/blackboards obtained? _____
Easels/blackboards delivered? _____
Newsprint for easels obtained? _____
Supplies (pencils/paper/chalk/
erasers/felt tip pens/masking
tape/thumb tacks) obtained? _____
Room arrangements made? _____
Ventilation/heating adequate? _____
Luncheon arrangements for conference? _____ Yes _____ No
Meeting Clean-up
Facilities restored & cleaned? _____
Equipment returned? _____

18. Recording the Proceedings

Methods to be used: _____

Personnel/equipment obtained? _____

19. Orienting Discussion Moderators

Orientation meeting scheduled? _____
Orientation meeting held? _____
Moderators have prepared materials? _____
Final moderator meeting? _____

PUBLIC MEETING CHECKLIST

20. Reporting to the Decision-making Body

The body(s): _____

Reporting format: _____

Report made? _____

21. Reporting to the Public

Formats used: _____

Report prepared? _____

Number of copies required: _____

Copies reproduced? _____

Reporting completed? _____

22. Meeting Evaluation

Evaluation completed? _____

Recommendations made? _____

Recommendations accepted? _____

CHAPTER 7: WORKING WITH ADVISORY GROUPS

Advisory groups are one of the most frequently utilized mechanisms of community involvement in aviation planning. The advantage of advisory groups is that the planning agency is able to work directly with knowledgeable leaders of interest and neighborhood groups over a period of time. Under these circumstances members of the advisory committee become quite knowledgeable of aviation issues, and are often able to provide far more substantial comment than can individuals who have minimal exposure to the technical aspects of aviation. In addition, communication links become established between members of the advisory committee and planning agency or airport proprietor's staff so that members of the advisory committee and staff achieve a greater appreciation of each other's positions and concerns.

One caution about the use of advisory committees is that they should not be substituted for other forms of community involvement. The use of advisory committees, without other community involvement activities which include a larger public, will rarely give the public a sense that they have been genuinely included in the decisionmaking. In addition, without other community involvement activities it becomes difficult to determine whether or not the advisory committee is truly representative of the broader general public.

What Advisory Committees Can Do:

There are a number of things which advisory committees can do. These include the following:

- . Advisory committees can insure that community goals and needs are addressed.
- . Advisory committees can serve as a sounding board for the agency in identifying study issues, and provide reactions to study alternatives.
- . Advisory committees provide continuing visibility and credibility to the study process.
- . Advisory committees can provide substantial assistance in designing community involvement programs and may even assist in carrying them out.
- . Advisory committees provide for representation of many different interests, and can help resolve conflicts between those interests.

Advisory committees can review all written material, especially that destined for the general public, to insure it is written in a manner which will communicate effectively.

- . Participation on an advisory committee can create an emotional commitment or vested interest in the planning product which may provide a political climate in which plans can be implemented.

Differences Between Advisory Committees and Task Forces:

In order to insure the representativeness of an advisory committee, they often grow to a relatively large size (25-35 members). A successful advisory committee established at Minneapolis/St. Paul Airport, for example, has 26 members and constantly struggles to hold its size down. Though advisory committees of such size can serve in a "sounding-board" role, they are rarely effective as a problem-solving group unless broken down into working groups or task forces. While an advisory committee is usually established for the life of the study and meets periodically throughout the study, a task force is usually organized to work on a specific problem or single objective and exists only for the period of time necessary to complete the task. Typically a task force is a sub-group of the advisory group, or it may be established on an ad hoc basis. Because it is a working group, the task force is usually smaller in size, with an upper limit of approximately fifteen members. Typically the recommendations of the task force are subsequently reviewed by the full advisory committee, since the size of the task force--while increasing its working effectiveness--often does not guarantee representativeness.

Guidelines for Working with Advisory Committees:

Practical experience working with advisory committees has ranged from very good to very poor. Based on these experiences there are several guidelines that should be observed in organizing advisory committees or task forces. These include:

- a. Maintain consistency with agency guidelines. There are guidelines covering federal agencies that restrict the establishment of permanent advisory committees. On the other hand, it is possible to establish advisory committees to work for the life of a particular study or problem. It may be advisable, however, to identify them as "working groups" or use other appropriate nomenclature which clearly distinguishes them from a permanent advisory group.
- b. Clearly define the limits of authority of the advisory committee or task force. The most frequent problems which have occurred with advisory groups have resulted from a lack of clarity of the limits of the decisionmaking authority of the group. If these limits are not clearly defined, then an advisory group may feel betrayed when a decisionmaking body makes a decision at odds with the advisory committee's recommendations. If expectations are created of greater authorities than actually exist, the sense of betrayal is often greater

than if there had been clearly defined limits in the first place. One of the first tasks after an advisory committee is established is to clearly define with the committee exactly what its role is and what the limits will be on its decision-making authority.

- c. Advisory committees and task forces must be representative of the full range of values within the community. An advisory committee or task force that represents only a few limited viewpoints may serve to mislead the sponsoring agency and embitter those publics who are not included in the committee. There may be a tendency to exclude from the committee people who have expressed vocal opposition to the project or issue. The hard reality is that unless the advisory committee represents all points of view, including opponents, it serves no useful function. If you only hear from people who are supportive of the issue at hand, you will be blind to the opinions of others who are potentially, equally impacted.
- d. The life of the committee should be limited. Far more problems have been experienced with permanent standing advisory committees than with those that are limited to the life of a study. The longer that a committee is in existence the more likely it is that the members of the committee will become unrepresentative of their constituencies and instead become a member of a kind of elitist group. As indicated earlier, federal guidelines also limit permanent committees.
- e. Efforts should be made to insure that members of committees or task forces maintain regular communication with the constituencies they are supposed to represent. As indicated above, over time members of advisory committees tend to become unrepresentative of the constituencies they were appointed to represent. Part of this is simply a process of education: As people understand more about aviation issues, their opinions and attitudes change. But if advisory committee members become substantially unrepresentative, then the value of the advisory committee is effectively minimized. As a result, it is important to establish from the beginning that one of the duties of membership on an advisory committee is to maintain communication with the interests that are supposedly represented. This communication with constituencies could take the form of briefings of the groups represented, informing them through the use of organizational newsletters, or occasional interviews.

Selecting Advisory Committee Membership:

One of the greatest problems in establishing advisory committees lies in devising an adequate method of selection so that the public does not feel that the sponsoring agency has stacked or biased the committee to assure that positions of the agency are approved. The other problem is to insure that the general public feels that the balance of interests

within the advisory committee is roughly representative. Depending on the circumstances, there are several alternative methods for selecting advisory committee members. These include:

- a. Members are selected by the agency with an effort to balance the different interests. Assuming that the sponsoring agency has done a careful job of analyzing the interests in the community, this may be one of the simplest and most efficient means of establishing an advisory committee. If, however, there is substantial controversy surrounding the study, this method runs the risk of not being acceptable to publics who believe that the sponsoring agency may be attempting to manipulate the community involvement process through the composition of the advisory committee.
- b. The agency identifies the interests it wishes to have represented and allows the various interest groups to self-select their own representatives. This method gives the various interest groups more control over their own representation and therefore is more credible. The major difficulty arises if there is an interest that needs to be represented, but is not formalized into some organization that can readily select a representative. For example, if a neighborhood is not already organized into a neighborhood association, it may be very difficult to get that neighborhood to select a representative.
- c. A core group of major interests is established, which adds additional members as other interests are identified. Sometimes it is easier not to over-structure the membership of an advisory committee but simply to establish a core group of the obvious interest groups, with the understanding that they will invite other representatives onto the committee as other groups and interests are identified. This method assumes that the original members of the advisory group understand the need to insure that the advisory group continues to be broadly representative.
- d. Selection by an established political body. To insure credibility it is sometimes appropriate to request that a city council, county commissioners, or other body of elected officials select the representatives for the advisory committee. Assuming that the elected body is viewed as representative, then the members selected by this body will have considerable legitimacy. The potential risk is that by involving elected officials the advisory committee can become very political, but the involvement of the elected officials in selecting advisory committee members may also be positive, insuring their continuing interest in the study.
- e. Membership by election. In a few instances there are definable districts or entities which have been established which will allow for popular election of members of advisory committees.

Committee Meetings:

The timing and subject matter for advisory committee meetings should be carefully planned. There are few things worse than an advisory committee meeting that is not needed, or comes too late in the planning or decisionmaking process for their resulting comments to have any impact. Time volunteered by participants of an advisory committee is extremely valuable, precisely because it is volunteered, so there usually needs to be considerable staff work to insure that the agenda is carefully planned, the necessary documents are out to the advisory committee members in advance of the meetings, the meeting format is suitable for discussion of that particular topic, and necessary consultants or other technical experts are available at the meetings.

It is desirable to establish a comfortable informal atmosphere in the committee meetings. An over-emphasis on parliamentary procedure can lead to many hours spent on formalities rather than substantive issues. In addition one of the purposes of the advisory committee is to reduce the barriers between citizens and staff of the sponsoring agency. Formalistic meeting procedures tend to exaggerate differences, rather than reduce them.

The location and time of the meeting should be established based on the convenience of the advisory committee members, more than the convenience of agency staff. The length of meetings should be specified and agreed upon, usually no longer than two and one-half to three hours. If the group is not too large, then the best seating arrangement is to have the committee seated around a table so that all members of the committee can see each other when they speak. If the committee is so large that this is not possible, then the committee should be broken down into smaller discussion groups whenever possible.

One of the basic questions facing every committee is whether or not to schedule regular meetings, even at the risk that they will not be needed, or to schedule meetings only when needed, with potential logistics problems in finding a time suitable to everybody. On balance, regular meetings seem to be easier for people to remember and schedule. But some flexibility needs to be built in so that they can be canceled if not really needed.

Some advisory committees have found that they can reduce the number of meetings by using written progress reports coupled with response forms requesting specific information needed for the progress of the study. Summaries of the comment received on the response form are then prepared and redistributed, along with an indication of any action taken based on the comment.

Staff Involvement:

As the comments above indicate, working with an advisory committee in an effective manner requires considerable staff work in preparation for advisory committee meetings, and follow-up to the comments received during the meetings. Experience suggests that advisory committees

should not be established unless the sponsoring agency is willing to provide sufficient staff assistance to insure its effectiveness.

In extremely controversial situations, problems can occur when citizens are suspicious that staff members may manipulate the process to protect the sponsoring agency's position. In some cases, agencies have provided money so that an advisory committee can retain its own staff. If carefully planned, this can be effective, although there is some experience to suggest that this approach merely serves to institutionalize the differences between agency staff and the public.

It is clear that those staff assigned to work with advisory committees should have skills in working with small groups, such as interpersonal communication and group dynamic skills, in addition to their normal technical qualifications. If a community involvement consultant is utilized in the design of the community involvement program, the consultant may be helpful in advising on the best way to work effectively with the advisory committee.

One issue that must be addressed is whether or not the meeting leader at advisory committee meetings will be a staff person, or a citizen selected by the advisory committee to act as group leader. If there is a citizen leader who is skilled at meeting leadership, and has an appreciation for the requirements of problem-solving between the groups, then a citizen leader is often better because he/she will lend credibility to the advisory committee process. On the other hand, a staff member skilled in meeting leadership may be more effective if there is no skilled leader from within the group itself. One of the deciding factors in selecting a meeting leader would be the confidence and trust level which exists between the staff and citizen members of the committee.

Establishing Advisory Committee Ground Rules:

There are a number of ground rules which you may want to establish in an advisory committee depending on the degree of formality you wish or the significance of the advisory committee in the over-all community involvement program. Among the issues which you may want to consider are:

1. Attendance - Will a certain number of absences be grounds for dropping a member? Do alternates have all the same rights on the committee as full members?
2. Participation of Observers - Are non-members permitted to speak at meetings or participate in other ways?
3. Sub-Committees or Task Forces - How do the sub-committees or task forces keep the full advisory committee informed? Does the advisory committee have the right to substantially change work performed by a sub-committee?
4. Reporting - Who reports the conclusions of the advisory board to the decision-making body?

5. Constituencies - What are the mechanisms by which advisory committee members will keep in touch with their constituencies?
6. Parliamentary Procedures - To what extent are formal parliamentary procedures followed?
7. Expenses - Are members' travel expenses reimbursed? What constitutes reasonable expenses?

Voting:

One of the most ticklish issues within an advisory committee is the question of voting. Many advisory committees have chewed up months of meetings deciding on voting rights, etc. Several successful advisory committee experiences suggest that voting under most circumstances may not even be necessary. In the Sea-Tac example, cited in Chapter 2, no votes were taken and many members of the advisory committee feel that this was crucial to the success of the committee. Decisions were either arrived at by consensus, or everyone had a chance to express their opinion and then the issue was dropped. Even when an issue was dropped, it was noticeable that the sponsoring agency made efforts to respond to the opinions which had been expressed in the meeting.

One of the problems with voting is that it's not clear exactly what a vote means. While there is an effort to insure that advisory committees are representative of all the various interests, there is no assurance that an advisory committee can be representative in exactly the proportion of viewpoints held by the broad general public. As a result a closely split vote on an advisory board cannot be presumed to represent public sentiment except to suggest that public sentiment is substantially divided. Yet the vote of an advisory committee can often carry political weight beyond its real merit as a democratic process.

There are several alternative voting methods that might be tried if there is a reason the committee should vote at all. These include:

- Require a three-fifths or two-thirds majority for any vote to carry. In effect this means that there is a substantial majority necessary for anything to pass, rather than just a simple majority.
- Use different vote margins for different types of issues. Procedural issues might be settled by simple majority vote, but votes on the substance of plans might require a larger majority or even be determined by consensus.

Experience suggests that when decisions can be made by general group agreement, this is preferable. To accomplish this requires a skilled meeting leader who is able to summarize the sense of the meeting and obtain general consensus for this summary.

Relationship of Advisory Committees to other Community Involvement Activities

Advisory committees are particularly useful during those phases of the planning or decision-making process where there are technical studies under way, and there are no broad philosophical options to present to the public. During these phases the advisory committee can review the technical work and provide the continuity and visibility necessary to maintain the overall credibility of the community involvement process. Advisory committees can also be particularly helpful in reviewing logistics for public meetings, including possible hand-outs and meeting formats. As a general rule, however, phases of community involvement programs which have relied primarily on advisory committee meetings for public participation, should be followed by phases of broad general review of the products generated by that advisory committee. By combining advisory committee activity with other broader public activities, it is possible to obtain the advantages of continuity from the advisory committee, coupled with the political credibility of broad public comment.

Reference: The U. S. Environmental Protection Agency has published a very useful guide titled "Guide To: Working Effectively With Advisory Committees", prepared by Ann Widditch, published in May, 1977. This guide can be obtained from the EPA Office of Public Affairs, A-107, Washington, D. C.

CHAPTER 8: WORKING WITH THE MEDIA

Newspapers, radio, and television are all major communication vehicles for reaching a broad general public. As a result, a well-designed public information program for reaching the public through the media is an essential element in any community involvement program. Public information programs differ from community involvement in that they are targeted primarily at communicating to the public, while community involvement programs provide for communication from the public in a way which insures the public an opportunity to impact on final decisions. But individuals and groups must be informed of possible actions or policies, and their consequences, before they can participate effectively in a decisionmaking process, so community involvement programs are designed to include a public information program as an integral element of the program. Over and beyond providing information needed for the public to participate, public information activities contribute significantly to community involvement by maintaining a general level of public awareness about aviation issues.

Many larger airports or government agencies already have public information or public affairs officers who are able to provide guidance to you in designing a public information program. These individuals can be extremely helpful to you because of their skills in working with the media, and also because they already have established contacts or relationships with members of the media in your community. If you have such staff assistance available to you, any public information program should be designed in coordination with them. In addition, most agencies have established procedures for approval of press releases and other communications to the media, and your public information officer can advise you of these procedures. Therefore, whenever possible, communication efforts with the media should be coordinated through an agency public affairs office.

Because there are some differences between working with newspapers and working with the electronic media, the guidance below is in two sections: 1) Working with Newspapers, and 2) Working with TV and Radio.

WORKING WITH NEWSPAPERS

Competition for Coverage:

The first thing that you must remember in working with newspapers is that you are in competition with all other newsworthy events in your community for coverage in the local newspaper. If you are a major regional airport, or you are located in a relatively rural or suburban area, then anything you do may be extremely newsworthy. But most airport proprietors will find they are competing for coverage of their community involvement programs. In fact, the more urban the area in which you are working, the more difficult you will find it to get full and complete coverage from the major metropolitan dailies.

Establishing Yourself with the Press:

The first step in working with the press is to identify those newspapers you believe are good vehicles for stories about your community involvement program. As indicated above, if you are located in a metropolitan area, you may find the competition for coverage is particularly intense. If this is true you may wish to identify weekly newspapers or suburban newspapers that are widely read in the communities immediately adjoining the airport. If you do want coverage from a major metropolitan newspaper, it is also helpful if you identify those sections of the newspaper in which coverage of your story is most likely. Depending on the nature of the study or decision being reached, your story may be of interest to the business or financial editor, a transportation editor, an environmental editor, or reporters at the City Desk who cover activities of local governmental agencies. If you target your approach towards editors or reporters in these particular sections, you are much more likely to get the coverage that you wish. In the smaller newspaper you may be dealing directly with the editor or city editor of the newspaper, but even then there may be reporters who have particular interest in stories about aviation or planning issues.

Once you have identified the newspapers which are the most likely candidates for providing information about your community involvement program, it is perfectly legitimate--in fact strongly recommended--for you to make a personal visit to the editor or appropriate reporters from whom you seek coverage. The primary purpose of this visit is simply to get to know this individual, and provide them background information on the issues that are likely to emerge during the community involvement program. It is helpful if you have news releases, summaries of technical background for the study, or brochures which you can leave with the reporter or editor. If you have an advisory committee, it often provides added weight to your visit if a citizen member of the advisory committee accompanies you in calling on the press.

Types of Coverage from the Press:

In your public information planning, and in your visits with the press, there are a number of different types of coverage which may be arranged. These include:

1. News stories describing meetings or events, or reporting speeches made by agency leaders.
2. Announcements of meetings or other community involvement activities.
3. Feature stories about the issues being addressed in the study.
4. Editorial support for the community involvement effort.
5. Coverage of press conferences when there are major announcements or events that cannot be covered adequately in press releases.

6. If a newspaper is particularly interested in your issue, they may be willing to not only print feature stories, but also provide coverage of reader responses to that story.

Attitudes Towards the Press:

While it is perfectly legitimate to establish personal relationships with members of the press, you must constantly remember that although it may be appropriate for you to provide news to the press, you cannot dictate how it is used. Newspaper people take great professional pride in their work, and can easily become defensive or insulted if you attempt to do their job. If you do have a disagreement with how a reporter has covered a story, this should be discussed privately and rationally with the reporter--or simply ignored. Efforts to go over the reporter's head to the editor will usually backfire. If you have serious problems with the newspaper, it might be more effective for members of the advisory committee, if there is one, to write letters to the editor for publication.

The most critical thing you can do in relationship to the press is to establish and maintain your own credibility. Above all, this means that you must be honest and not evasive. Don't dodge controversy; it is the life blood of the newspaper business, and if you attempt to downplay controversy too much, you will begin to lose your credibility. Avoid "no comment" responses, and return phone calls to the press promptly. If a newspaper reporter is not able to reach you before his/her deadline, he will likely indicate that you were "not available," which looks to the public as if you are avoiding the press. If you are taken by surprise by a reporter's question or a public statement by an individual or group, it is better to say that you have just heard about the statement and will have a response as soon as you have had an opportunity to study it. Then be sure you do get your answer out quickly, after appropriate agency coordination.

Press Releases:

Press releases will be your major vehicle for informing the press, and notifying them of newsworthy stories. Be certain that you do not flood the press with press releases with no newsworthiness, as this will begin to undermine your credibility. Normally press releases should be sent to the press two to three days before you expect the story to run. If the story is particularly newsworthy, it may be picked up the next day; but if it is not of high interest, the story may be held for a day or two. If you are dealing with weekly newspapers, it is particularly important to observe their closing deadlines, which are often set several days before the newspaper actually reaches the street. Out of your earlier visits to the newspapers you will have identified reporters that have an interest in aviation stories, and it is entirely appropriate to send press releases directly to them. If there are several reporters that may want to cover the same story from different angles, it is a good idea to send copies of the press release to all of them, although there should be some indication of the distribution so they are aware that other reporters have also received the story.

Writing a Press Release:

There are certain general principles that should be observed in writing a press release. The most important is that a press release is written so that the information is presented in such a way that the most important information is in the first paragraph, the next most important information in the second paragraph, etc. Newspaper people refer to this as the "inverted pyramid" (See Figure 1). The first part of the story--the lead--should cover "who, what, when, where, why, how." The second part of the story should cover other important details, and the third part should cover other miscellaneous information. The reason for this is that the first paragraphs of the story should attract the reader's interest to the story. By providing the essentials in the first paragraph or two, the reader gets the important information even if he does not complete the entire story. Also, when editors are squeezing stories into limited space, they will cut the story from the bottom up. As a result, sometimes only the first few paragraphs will survive. If important information has been included in the final paragraphs, the readers may miss the essentials of the story.

Other principles that should be observed in writing press releases include:

1. Keep sentences short.
2. Prefer simple language to the complex.
3. Use the Active Voice, e.g., "Metro Airport announces it will conduct a series of workshops" instead of "A series of workshops will be conducted to consider problems at Metro Airport."
4. Add conversation (quotes) to your story, e.g., John Q. Smith, Airport Director, stated: "These meetings will give us a chance to hear the public's ideas about future development around the airport."
5. Avoid wordiness, e.g., "Comments from the public about the alternatives are invited" instead of "opportunities for thorough discussion, analysis, and evaluation of alternatives will be provided."
6. Write as you talk.
7. Relate the story to the reader's experience.
8. Don't overuse adjectives, e.g., dynamic, outstanding.
9. Use a consistent style.
10. Be honest and strive for accuracy.

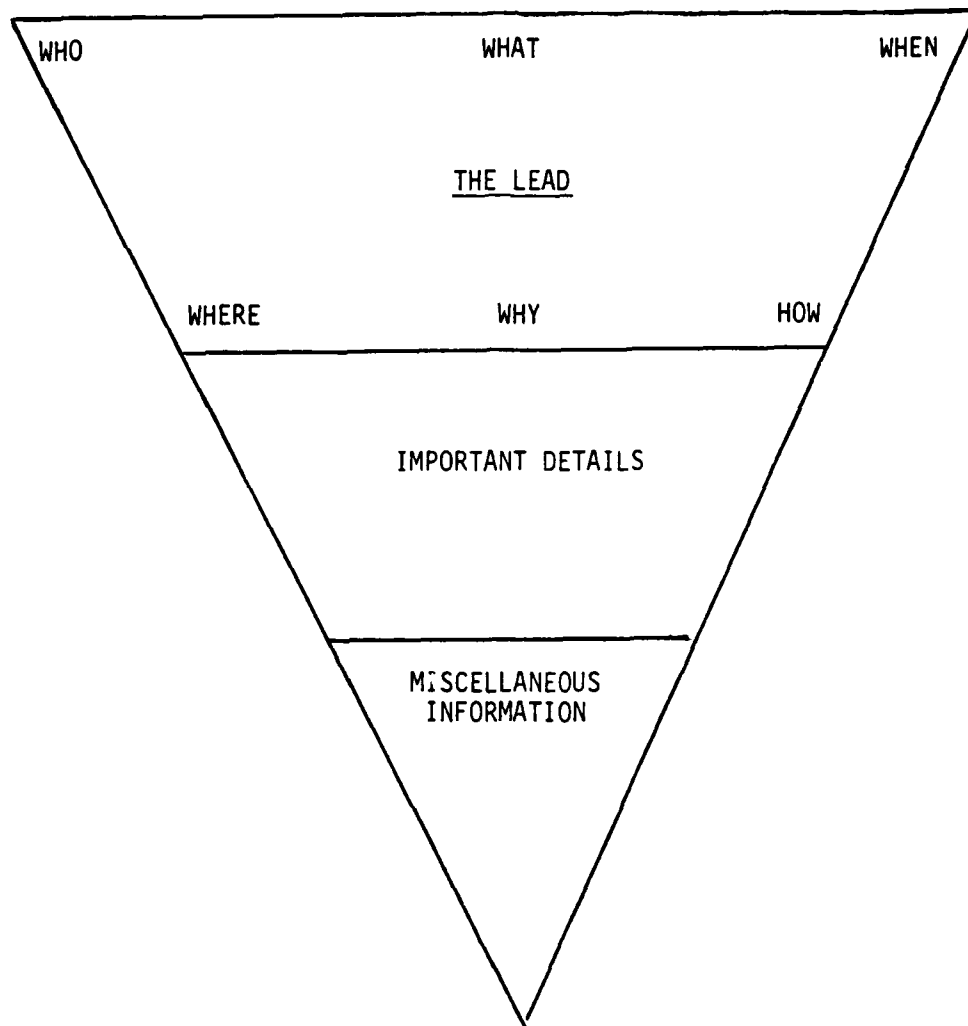


FIG. 1. INVERTED PYRAMID FOR NEWS RELEASE

Press Conferences:

Press conferences are a useful way of getting the press interested and involved in your stories. But press conferences should not be held if the material to be covered could be equally well handled by a press release. As a result, press conferences should be held only when there is a major story, or when you have a "name" figure such as an agency leader or a local political figure who will act as a spokesperson. If you do not show concern for the newsworthiness of your press conference, you are unlikely to receive continued coverage of your stories. You must constantly be aware that you are in competition with other newsworthy events. Since press conferences require additional travel time, it means the reporter has less time to cover other stories, so press conferences should be utilized only when the additional time is justified by the importance of the story.

The typical format is to have a spokesperson present a short statement, and then allow time for questions from the press. Both the spokesperson's statement, and general background on the study or decision-making process should be printed and distributed to the press at the time of the press conference. The reason for issuing a printed version of all statements or speeches is to assist the reporter, but also protects you by insuring that you are quoted accurately.

WORKING WITH RADIO AND TV

Public Service:

All radio and TV stations are required to provide public service news coverage and features to the community as a condition of keeping their license. As a result, radio and TV stations expect to provide a certain amount of "free" public service time, and will be happy to discuss with you how your community involvement program might be publicized. Keep in mind that although the radio or TV station must provide public service time, it does not have any obligation to provide public service time to your particular program, as there may be a number of other worthy programs competing for the public service time. As a result it is best to assume that you will get coverage to the extent that your story is newsworthy, rather than because of any obligation on the part of the radio or TV station.

Establishing Yourself with Radio and TV Stations:

Most of the principles of working with newspapers apply equally to radio and television stations. The first step is for you to identify those radio and TV stations which you believe will best provide information to the public interested in your community involvement program. You may find that a five minute program on a station with a very large audience elicits far greater public interest and response than a half-hour program on a station with relatively low coverage. Public broadcasting stations and cable television stations, for example, are far more likely to provide you with prolonged coverage, but the number of people watching these stations is substantially less. The first step, once again, is to make a personal call on the news director of the radio or tele-

vision stations from which you wish to receive coverage. Once again, printed materials should be left with the news director, and the presence of a citizen representative will add legitimacy to your story.

Types of Radio and Television Coverage:

There are several types of radio and TV coverage which you should discuss with the news director. These include:

1. Coverage of meetings or other community involvement events on regular news programs on the stations.
2. Thirty to sixty-second spot coverage announcing public meetings or inviting participation in the community involvement program.
3. Pre-taped guest editorials describing your community involvement program and inviting participation.
4. Appearance of an agency official or leading community figure on an interview show.
5. Appearance of an agency official or other program participant on a call-in show.
6. A taped documentary describing the issues which would be covered in the study.
7. Some form of participatory radio or television such as that described in Chapter 9.

Writing for Radio:

In preparing press releases or announcements for radio, most of the same rules apply as in newspaper stories. The critical difference is that with radio and TV the time you will receive will usually be much briefer. You must remember that major world events may receive no more than thirty to sixty seconds of coverage on radio or television news, so your public involvement program will be very fortunate to receive anything more. As a result, brevity is of extreme importance. You can assume that a story longer than eight to fifteen lines will not appear. It is also important to remember that the news announcer will "speak" your story, so sentences must be brief and of sufficient simplicity that they sound conversational. Like news stories they should always be written in the Present Active Tense, using tight, simple language.

CHAPTER 9: COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT TECHNIQUES

A SHORT CATALOGUE OF COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT TECHNIQUES

There are a large number of community involvement techniques available, and because community involvement is a relatively new field, there are many new techniques being developed constantly.

This chapter contains a short catalogue of sixteen frequently used community involvement techniques. A short description is provided for each technique, plus a discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of the techniques. An index of the techniques is provided below:

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INTERVIEWS:

Description of the Technique: One technique for quickly assessing public sentiment is to conduct a series of interviews with key individuals representing the range of publics most likely to be interested or affected by the study. The kinds of information which might be discussed in an interview would include the amount of interest in the study, the goals and values of the interest group the individual represents, the manner in which the interest group would like to participate in the study, political climate and relationship between the various interest groups. Interviews can either be non-structured, or the interviewer can prepare a list of questions or topics to be discussed in each interview, so that responses can be easily compared and summarized. Since there

are skills involved in effective interviewing, interviews should be conducted by somebody with experience or training in them.

Federal agencies are required to get approval from the Office of Management and Budget for all surveys and questionnaires. Structured interviews may fall under these approval requirements, so federal agencies may find it preferable to stay with unstructured interviews. Agency orders should be carefully reviewed on this subject.

Advantages of Interviews:

- . Interviews can provide a quick picture of the political situation in which a study will be conducted.
- . Interviews can provide important information about how various interests wish to participate.
- . Personal relationships can be built with key individuals and more direct communication links established with the publics. Once communication has been established through an interview, individuals and groups are more likely to participate.

Disadvantages:

- . Poor interviewing can create a negative impression of the individual.
- . Interviews may not be entirely representative of public sentiment.

FIELD OFFICES:

Description of the Technique: Field offices are local offices of the sponsoring agency established in the community where the project or issue has the potential for significant impact.

Typically, a field office is placed in a highly visible part of the community--such as a downtown storefront or shopping center--so that the largest number of people will know of its existence. The field office's staff are able to answer questions and solicit opinions from the local community. A field office is designed to encourage "drop-ins" and other informal interactions with the community, with exhibits, charts, maps, brochures and other materials on display. Field office staff are encouraged to be involved as much as possible in the local community. Field offices can also be the meeting place for workshops, task force meetings, open houses or other events. This reinforces the field office as the focal point for participation in the study.

Field offices have been used successfully at a number of larger airports (including Sea-Tac and Los Angeles) and the airports have discovered that they are an important tool in communicating to the neighborhood that the airport is interested in the surrounding community and is willing to make an effort to talk with local neighbors about airport-related problems.

Advantages of Field Offices:

- . Field offices provide a means of informal interaction with the local community at the convenience of the residents.
- . Field offices communicate the value the agency places upon community feelings.
- . Staff occupying field offices often obtain a better understanding of community needs and desires.

Disadvantages of Field Offices:

- . Field offices can be costly to staff to operate.
- . Field office staff often experience torn loyalties between their commitments to the sponsoring agency and the concerns of the local public.

HOTLINE:

Description of the Technique: A hotline is an "easy to remember" telephone number which is publicized through repetition in brochures, reports, news stories, paid advertising, etc., as a single telephone number that citizens can call to ask questions or make comments about aviation issues. If the public which the agency wishes to reach is large geographically, the hotline is usually established so that the call is toll-free to the public regardless of where the call is placed. The hotline is manned with staff who will take responsibility for finding answers to questions from the public, or for relaying comments or complaints from the public to appropriate staff persons. Hotlines have been used as a method of handling noise complaints, and as coordination points for individuals requiring information about the progress of a study. Comments received over a hotline can be incorporated as a part of the record of a public meeting or hearing.

The communication skills of the staff operating the hotline are very important, as defensive or insensitive responses to public comment may produce negative effects.

Advantages of the Hotline:

- . The hotline provides a convenient means by which citizens can participate in the study.
- . The hotline assists citizens in locating the staff most likely to be able to answer their questions or receive their comments.

- The hotline may be a useful means of providing information about meetings or other community involvement activities.
- A hotline is a communication to the public of the sponsoring agency's interest in their comments or questions.

Disadvantages of the Hotline:

- Defensive or insensitive comments may produce negative reactions.
- The hotline must be staffed by people able and willing to deal with public comment effectively.

DISPLAYS/EXHIBITS:

Description of the Technique: One technique which has been used to inform the broad public of community involvement programs, or to obtain comment from the public, is to set up displays or exhibits in places such as the agency lobby, shopping centers, or state fairs where there are a number of individuals passing by. These range from fixed displays which provide general information to the public, to booths which are manned by community involvement specialists who are able to answer questions from the public, or solicit public comment. Even when fixed displays are used, it is possible to have response forms available so that the public can respond to the display. Displays and exhibits may be particularly useful in identifying publics that had not been previously identified as interested in aviation issues. They also provide general information to the public about aviation problems, even if people choose not to participate. Exhibits or displays should be coordinated with other community involvement activities, so that people displaying an interest as a result of an exhibit can be directed into other community involvement activities.

Advantages of Exhibits or Displays:

- Provide information to the general public about aviation issues.
- Help identify individuals and groups with an interest in aviation issues.

Disadvantages of Displays or Exhibits:

- If exhibits or booths are staffed, they involve a major commitment of staff time.
- Must be coordinated with other public involvement techniques so that interest developed through the exhibit can be directed into other community involvement activities.

NEWSPAPER INSERTS:

Description of the Technique: One technique which has been used to provide information to the broad general public and, at the same time solicit comment back from the public, is a newspaper insert including a response form distributed through the local newspaper. Most newspapers are able to handle the distribution of inserts for a modest cost, and are often able to print the insert at considerably less cost than other commercial printers. The newspaper insert can describe the study and the various means by which the public can be involved, and also include a response form which will allow people to express opinions or indicate their willingness to be involved in other community involvement techniques.

Most urban newspapers are able to distribute inserts to selected geographical areas, rather than their entire readership, so that it is possible to target the insert at those areas which will have the highest interest in the study. On a percentage basis, the return of response forms is not likely to be very high, although on a total quantity basis, it may provide a means of participation for the largest number of citizens compared with other community involvement techniques. Because respondents are self-selecting, a statistical bias is introduced into the responses, so that they cannot be represented as statistically valid as a survey might.

Advantages of a Newspaper Insert:

- Newspaper inserts reach a much greater percentage of the population than most other public information techniques.
- Newspaper inserts provide an opportunity for a large number of citizens to participate.
- Newspaper insert response forms provide a means for identifying other individuals and groups interested in participating in the community involvement activities.

Disadvantages of Newspaper Inserts:

- Newspaper inserts are relatively expensive to produce and distribute in large numbers.
- The response rate from newspaper inserts is relatively low, and it cannot be represented as statistically valid.

REPORTS, BROCHURES, INFORMATION BULLETINS:

Description of the Technique: Reports, brochures, and information bulletins are an essential part of every community involvement effort. They are an essential vehicle for informing the public of the opportunities for participation, the progress of the study to date, and any decisions that have been made.

There are three times when reports are typically published in a community involvement program. These include:

- a. After problem definition, including initial data collection.
- b. Upon identification of a set of broad general alternatives.
- c. Upon identification of specific detailed alternatives and their environmental impacts.

Because reports contain technical information, one key requirement is to write reports in a manner which provides needed technical information, yet is understandable to the general public. It is sometimes useful to have reports reviewed by an advisory committee that can point out confusing, biased, or unnecessary material in the report.

Brochures are usually brief (up to sixteen pages) and contain a description of the study, the issues involved in the study, and a summary of the opportunities for the public to participate in the study. Typically brochures are used to reach new publics or inform known publics of the initiation of the study. The usefulness of a brochure is almost entirely dependent on its visual attractiveness and the skill with which it is written.

Information bulletins or newsletters are periodic reports to the public published as a means of maintaining a continuing interest in the study as well as documenting the progress in the study in a highly visible manner for the public. Information bulletins or newsletters are particularly important during portions of the study which are relatively technical in nature. During these periods the general public is less likely to be involved but should be kept informed of what is occurring through these media. The value of an information bulletin or newsletter rests almost entirely upon its ability to stir interest and encourage interaction. A drab, boring, bureaucratic sounding newsletter will usually not be worth the effort.

Some suggestions for all publications are shown below:

- a. Strive for simplicity.
- b. Use the public's language.

- c. Make the message relevant to the reader.
- d. Use graphics and avoid overly bureaucratic layouts.
- e. Don't make commitments that cannot be fulfilled.
- f. Provide clear instructions on how the public can interact with you.
- g. Get help from the public in preparing and reviewing the materials.

Advantages of Publications:

- . Publications are a direct means of providing a substantial amount of information to a large number of people in a relatively economic manner.
- . Publications are able to communicate a greater amount of information than almost any other form of communication.
- . Publications serve as a permanent record of what has transpired in the community involvement program.

Disadvantages of Publications:

- . Preparation of attractive publications requires definite skills which are not available in all organizations, and therefore may have to be purchased outside the organization.
- . Because of cost factors publications still reach only a limited audience and cannot be considered the only means by which to inform and involve the general public.

CONDUCT A SURVEY:

Description of the Technique: Surveys are an effort to determine public attitudes, values, and perceptions on various issues employing a rigorous methodology to insure that the findings of the survey in fact represent the sentiment of the community being sampled. Surveys can be conducted by phone, by mail, by individual interviews, or in small group interviews. Firms that design surveys spend many hours and utilize complex procedures to insure that the survey does not contain bias and that the "sample" of people interviewed is in fact representative. As a result surveys must be designed and conducted by somebody who is experienced in survey design. Normally this means that someone outside the planning organization must be retained to design and conduct the survey.

The steps you would need to follow in conducting a survey are:

1. Determine specifically what it is your agency or organization wants to find out.

2. Determine how the information would be used once it is obtained, so that you know the results are related to your planning or decisionmaking process.
3. Check to be sure whether other organizations already collect the information that would answer your questions.
4. Unless you have an experienced survey person in your own organization, contact a reputable survey research firm.

Federal regulations require OMB approval of all surveys or formal questionnaires conducted by federal agencies or with federal funds. These approvals are very difficult and time-consuming to obtain, virtually ruling this technique out for most federal agencies.

Advantages of a Survey:

- . Surveys can provide an expression of feeling from the total public, not just those publics which are most directly affected.
- . Surveys can provide an indication of whether or not the active participants in your community involvement program are in fact representative of the broader public.

Disadvantages of the Survey:

- . Unless surveys are carefully designed, they do not produce reliable and meaningful data.
- . The cost of developing statistically reliable surveys is high.
- . Surveys cannot substitute for political negotiation between significant interests.
- . If the issue is not of broad public interest, then a substantial number of survey respondents will be uninformed about the issues covered by the survey. (If you need to know if people are poorly informed, then this can itself be important information.)
- . Requirements for OMB approval eliminate this technique for most federal agencies.

PARTICIPATORY TELEVISION:

Description of the Technique: Because of the number of people reached by television, it holds considerable potential as a tool for both informing the public and soliciting participation. Some experts see cable television as holding the answer to participation, since eventually cable television may be utilized in such a way that it allows for two-way communication. In the meantime, there

have been several major uses of television programs. These include:

- a. Preparation of a half-hour or a one-hour television program describing alternative courses of action in a major study. Participants are asked to express their preference by mail or by a ballot that has been distributed in advance of the television program. In some cases discussion groups have been organized so that people watch the television program as a group, and discuss the program as a group, before marking the ballots.
- b. The agency could also obtain a block of time and conduct a call-in show on issues. One planning agency conducted a television program much like a tele-thon, with banks of telephone operators to receive calls from the public and have them answered by a panel of elected officials.
- c. Another agency obtained a regular block of free time from the local channel, and used this as a forum for continuing the discussion in the community involvement program. The television program served as a channel of communication about upcoming events, and also provided a forum for people with different points of view to come on the show and present their viewpoints.

Although television reaches large numbers of people, it is unusual to be able to obtain sufficiently large blocks of time for a participatory television program on commercial television, although this has been accomplished in a few cases where the study was extremely controversial. The audience on educational, university or cable television is much smaller and something of an educational and social economic elite. This creates problems of representation. Any poll which is taken accompanying such a program would share these problems of representation.

Advantages of Participatory Television:

- . Participatory television reaches the largest audience of any community involvement technique.
- . This technique is most convenient for the participants, because they do not have to leave their own home.
- . Even if people do not participate by filling out a ballot or phoning in, there is a definite education function to participatory television.

Disadvantages of Participatory Television:

- . The audience viewing the program may not be representative, and any votes or tallies taken as a result of the program may also be unrepresentative.

- Unless some participation occurs in designing the program, the public may not feel that the agency accurately or objectively described the issues.
- This kind of participation gives equal value to somebody who lives immediately next to the effected project or issue area of impact as somebody who lives fifty miles away and is only peripherally impacted.

CUMULATIVE BROCHURE:

Description of the Technique: The cumulative brochure is a document which keeps a visible record of a series of repetitive public meetings, public brochures, workshops, and citizen committee meetings. At the beginning of the process, a brochure is prepared presenting various study alternatives along with the pros and cons for each of the alternatives. In a series of public meetings and workshops, individuals, agencies, and organizations are invited to submit their own alternatives which are then included in the brochure along with their descriptions of pros, cons, and a no-action alternative. The brochure is then republished with space provided in the brochure for individuals to react to the various alternatives by writing their own pros and cons. These comments then become a part of the new brochure. With each round of meetings or other forums for public comment, the brochure grows by the addition of the public comment and technical response. As used by the developer of the cumulative brochure, the process calls for a series of four public meetings, seven versions of the brochure, three workshops and as many citizens committee meetings as may be necessary. The final document is quite thick, but does provide a visible record of the entire process.

Advantages of a Cumulative Brochure:

- The process is very visible and allows the public to see how a decision was reached.
- The process encourages open communication between the various publics as well as between the public and the sponsoring agency.
- No special status is granted to any one individual or group over another.

Disadvantages of the Cumulative Brochure:

- The final brochure is a large, cumbersome document and the many editions of the brochure can be expensive to produce.
- The effectiveness of the brochure depends on the ability of the sponsoring agency to address the issues in non-bureaucratic language.

- . The format of the brochure forces public reaction into a pro or con response when there may be other positions as well.
- . Since the sponsoring agency prepares the brochure, groups which are suspicious of that agency may question whether the brochure is biased.

CONDUCT A CONTEST OR EVENT:

Description of the Technique: One way to obtain publicity for your community involvement program is to stage a contest or event as a means of stimulating interest and gaining newspaper or television coverage. Examples of the use of this technique might include:

- . An essay contest in the public schools regarding aviation.
- . A photo contest for the best photo of antique planes.
- . Tours of agency facilities.

The aim is to stage a newsworthy event, related to the theme of the community involvement study. In this regard not only must the community involvement program be publicized, the people who will then continue to participate in subsequent community involvement efforts must get involved. Contests or events might be planned, for example, to precede workshops, meetings, or other community involvement programs in which people could participate.

Advantages of a Contest or event:

- . May generate substantial interest and publicity.
- . Will help to identify individuals interested in the kinds of issues addressed by the study.

Disadvantages of Contest or Events:

- . Typically does not produce public comment directly applicable to the study.
- . Expectations may be established for continuing participation which if not fulfilled may lead to resentment or cynicism.

MEDIATION:

Description of the Technique: Mediation is the application of the principles of labor/management mediation to environmental or political issues. In mediation a group is established which represents all the major interests which will be affected by a decision. Members of the mediation panel are all "official" representatives of the interests, and are appointed with the understanding that the organizations they represent will have the opportunity to approve or dis-

approve any agreements which result from the mediation. The basic ground rule which is established is that all agreements will be made by unanimity.

A key element in mediation is the appointment of a third party mediator--someone skilled in mediation, who is not seen as an interested party to the negotiations. The mediator not only structures the deliberations, but often serves as a conduit for negotiations between the various parties.

Mediation is only possible when the various interests in a conflict believe they can accomplish more by negotiation than by continuing to fight.

Advantages of Mediation:

- . Mediation can result in an agreement which is supported by all parties to the conflict.
- . Mediation may lead to quick resolution of issues which might otherwise be dragged out through litigation or other political processes.

Disadvantages of Mediation:

- . Mediation is an entirely voluntary process, and therefore will work only when all parties are willing to negotiate.
- . Mediation requires a highly skilled third party mediator.

CHARRETTE:

A charrette is similar to mediation in that it attempts to bring together all the critical agencies or individuals in an attempt to achieve mutual agreement on an overall plan. The difference is that a charrette is designed for a very concentrated bloc of time such as an entire weekend or a series of nightly meetings for a week, or a series of once-a-week or weekend meetings. The primary characteristic of a charrette exists in the aim to reach an agreement in a relatively short time by bringing all the critical decision-makers together under one roof until an agreement is reached. Critical elements in a charrette are:

- a. All major publics must be present so that decisions once reached constitute a consensus.
- b. All participants must agree to participate the entire time of the charrette in an effort to resolve differences and arrive at a plan.
- c. Everybody coming to the charrette does so with the understanding that the purpose is to develop an agreement that all participants can live with.

A charrette would be a particularly useful technique in a crisis situation, or as a means of resolving an impasse reached between various groups. It could also be used as a means of shortening the time required to make a decision in a planning study once the basic data collection had been completed.

Normally there is extensive publicity surrounding the charrette so that a larger public is aware of and supportive to the efforts to reach a mutual agreement.

Advantages of a Charrette:

- Useful as a means of achieving consensus and--since all critical interests are involved--can result in a commitment by all significant groups to support any plan coming out of the charrette.
- The intense nature of the charrette can lead to a deeper understanding of the positions and motivations of other individuals and groups.
- By working together in an intense manner, previously conflicting interests may develop a feeling of teamwork and cooperation which may extend long beyond this particular study.

Disadvantages of a Charrette:

- Charrettes are effective only when all interested parties are willing to enthusiastically participate, and are willing to accept a negotiated decision.
- Charrettes are very time-consuming, and it is difficult to get key decisionmakers to make the commitment to participate for the length of time required.
- Charrettes require substantial staff preparation, and can be quite expensive.

DELPHI:

Description of the Technique: The Delphi process is a method for obtaining consensus on forecasts by a group of experts. It might be useful, for example, as a means of estimating future airport use by a group of experts with differing philosophies and viewpoints. It can also be used as a technique for estimating possible environmental effects of various actions.

The basic procedure is as follows: A questionnaire is submitted individually to each participant requesting them to indicate their forecasts concerning the topic. The responses to the questionnaire

are consolidated and resubmitted to the participants with a request that they make an estimate of the probable occurrence of each event. The participants' responses are again collected and a statistical summary is prepared. The statistical summary is distributed to all participants and the participants are asked to give a new estimate now that they have seen the response of the total group. Participants whose answers differ substantially from the rest of the group are asked to state the reasons behind their answers. The new responses are then summarized statistically and redistributed to the participants who are asked to prepare a final estimate. A final statistical summary is then prepared based on participants' comments.

Delphi can be combined with other community involvement techniques. One agency, for example, carried out the Delphi process by distributing the original questionnaire to several thousand people. Even though only a few responded to the first questionnaire, the results were summarized and redistributed back to the original mailing list. With each redistribution of results, more and more individuals joined in the process. In place of the final summary, a large public meeting was held at which the results of the process were discussed. In this case the Delphi process served to generate considerable public interest, and the agency felt that the final public meeting was much better attended than it would have been without the Delphi process.

Advantages of a Delphi Process:

- . The Delphi process is an effective tool for achieving a consensus on forecasts among groups of experts.
- . Delphi minimizes the disadvantages of group dynamics such as over-dominance by a single personality or positions taken to obtain status or acceptance from the group.

Disadvantages of a Delphi Process:

- . Delphi may have a tendency to homogenize points of view.
- . The process of mailing questionnaires and redistributing summaries can be a time-consuming and cumbersome process.
- . The public may be no more willing to accept the findings of an expert panel than it would of a single technical expert.
- . The experts still may not be right.

SIMULATION GAMES:

There have been a number of simulation games which have been designed to allow people to simulate the effects of making particular policy choices and decisions, and in that process learn more about the impact of decisions and the interrelated nature of various features of an environmental or economic system. Simulation gaming provides an opportunity for people to try out their positions, and see what the consequences would be and how other groups react to them. Simulation games vary greatly in their complexity and the length of time required to play them. Unfortunately, the closer the game resembles "reality", the more lengthy and complex it usually becomes.

While simulation games can serve as an effective educational device--as a method for informing the public of the consequences of various choices--they typically do not provide opportunities for the public to comment specifically on study issues. Accordingly, simulation games could be used to educate an advisory group or leadership group of some sort, but must be used in conjunction with other community involvement techniques.

Advantages of a Simulation Game:

- . Simulation games can provide the public with information about the consequences of various policy positions or decisions.
- . Simulation games can provide the public with an understanding of the dynamics of an economic or environmental system.
- . Participation in a simulation game is usually fun, and participants develop a rapport and communication which can be maintained throughout the entire study.

Disadvantages of a Simulation Game:

- . There are a number of simulation games on the market which are confusing, over-technical or misleading. You will have to exercise great care in selecting a simulation game appropriate for your particular study.
- . While simulation games can be educational, they typically don't provide opportunities for direct public comment on your study.
- . Since few games have a perfect fit with reality, citizens may apply the game rules inappropriately to the actual situation.
- . People may become so engrossed in the game that they forget about the actual issues at hand.

PROVIDE TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE TO CITIZENS:

Description of the Technique: The public often feels intimidated by professional staff, and feel that agencies are able to present their points of view in well-argued technical studies, while the public does not have these resources available. Several agencies have afforded technical assistance to citizens by providing staff or consultants to help various interests or individuals in developing their own alternatives, or helping them analyze issues or evaluate the impacts of various alternatives. Whether or not this assistance can be provided by internal staff, or must be via "independent" consultants, depends on the relationship that exists between the planning agency and the community. The purpose in providing this technical assistance is to insure that citizens who have different values and orientations than the agency's are able to develop their ideas using the same kind of technical expertise as that possessed by the agency itself. In highly controversial situations, the "facts" generated by independent technical assistance may be accepted more readily than "facts" generated by the agency's professional staff.

If the sponsoring agency is already committed to a particular alternative, then the agency's staff assigned to provide technical assistance will find themselves in the awkward position of having to "serve two masters." In fact, if the agency is committed and closed-minded, this is probably a wasted effort, doing more harm than good.

Advantages of Technical Assistance:

- Technical assistance can reduce the likelihood that citizens will feel intimidated by the expertise of professional staff.
- Ideas from the public can be developed to the same level of expertise as ideas generated by the agency.
- Information generated by "independent" sources may be more acceptable to the public than those generated by the agency's staff in controversial situations.

Disadvantages of Technical Assistance

- If the agency is not open to all alternatives, then agency staff may be placed in the position of divided loyalties. It is difficult to provide technical assistance to all groups, instead of simply the most active.
- The public can still fear that technical assistance will be used to mislead them or manipulate them to accept the agency's viewpoint.

TRAINING PROGRAMS FOR CITIZENS:

Description of the Technique: Training programs are usually conducted to improve citizen understanding of how studies are conducted, to inform them of technical information necessary to understand the study, or to improve communication between citizens and staff. Those training programs for citizens which have been used in community involvement have typically been in these three areas:

- a. Training about the planning and decisionmaking process.
- b. Training on substantive content such as planning, environmental impact assessment, etc.
- c. Skills of working together as a team or skills of meeting leadership.

This training might be accomplished formally through seminars, workshops and lectures, or it may be conducted more informally through simulation games, informal round-table discussions, brown-bag lunches, or through use of publications or audio visual material.

The intent of providing training to citizens is to insure they have sufficient background to participate effectively in the community involvement program, and also to provide citizens a more equal footing with professionals, so they can work with professionals without intimidation by the professionals' expertise. Training in group dynamics or meeting leadership can be effective when there are problems in working together effectively, or when citizens will be assisting in conducting meetings or workshops.

Advantages of a Citizen Training Program:

- . Training may increase the effectiveness or impact the public has upon the study.
- . Fully informed citizens may feel less intimidated by professionals and will be more likely to express differing viewpoints.
- . Properly trained, citizens can make a valuable contribution in the conduct of the community involvement program.

Disadvantages of a Citizen Training Program:

- . Some citizens may resent the suggestion that they need training or may question the "objectivity" of a training program conducted by a planning agency.
- . Training is usually limited to a small group and therefore there are problems regarding who is included and who is excluded.

- Conducting an effective training program requires special training skills, and therefore may require the additional cost of an outside consultant.
- The training must be integral to the planning or decision-making process or citizens will view the training as wasted time and effort.

CHAPTER 10: JAMESTOWN METROPOLITAN AIRPORT--A HYPOTHETICAL CASE

To illustrate how the community involvement techniques described in this manual might be utilized, this chapter describes the community involvement program developed for an ANCLUC (Airport Noise Control and Land Use Compatibility) study at the purely fictitious Jamestown Metropolitan Airport.

Jamestown is a city with a population of approximately 450,000. However the Jamestown metropolitan area is nearer to 800,000. The Jamestown Metropolitan Airport serves as the regional airport, and also is the main transfer point for air service in four contiguous states.

Jamestown Metropolitan Airport is operated by the City of Jamestown. However the airport itself is located so that it is surrounded on three sides by three suburban neighborhoods, Lawrence, Billston and Frederick Heights. These three neighborhoods are unincorporated areas, all part of Magdalen County, which is responsible for land use planning for these areas.

Like many airports, Jamestown Metropolitan Airport was established during the era of the prop plane, and the advent of the jet plane has created major noise impacts on the surrounding neighborhoods. The impacts are particularly severe upon Lawrence and Billston, which are located at either end of the most commonly used runways. However Frederick Heights also gets some run-up noise, and does get major noise impacts when the alternate runway is used. There are also impacts on those parts of Jamestown nearest the airport.

Both Lawrence and Billston are lower to middle-class residential areas, while Frederick Heights has somewhat more expensive housing.

Jamestown Metropolitan Airport was selected as a site for an ANCLUC study through discussions between the Jamestown Airport Commission (JAC), the airport proprietor, and FAA. Magdalen County also indicated that it planned to develop comprehensive plans in the west county area, which includes Lawrence, Billston, and Frederick Heights, and was pleased to participate in the study as part of its comprehensive planning effort.

The first step in the study was to establish a Policy Committee composed of staff from JAC, FAA, and Magdalen County. Discussions were conducted with the respective decisionmaking bodies, (e.g., Airport Commission, County Commission), to establish the scope of the study, budgets, etc. A major commitment to community involvement was made by all three agencies.

The Policy Committee then began the design of the first stage of its public involvement program. After some discussion they agreed that for simplicity they would design the study in four major stages: 1) Issue Identification; 2) Formulation of Alternatives; 3) Analysis and Evaluation of Alternatives; and 4) Decisionmaking. They also agreed to use the "thought process" described in Chapter 4.

STAGE I: ISSUE IDENTIFICATION STAGE

Using the thought process, the Policy Committee established the following list of "desired outcomes" or objectives for the Issue Identification Stage:

- To identify the level of existing noise problems
- To identify existing use of land near the airport
- To identify planned uses for land near the airport

Based on these objectives for the first stage, they identified the "information exchange" as:

INFORMATION TO THE PUBLIC

- . The purposes and potential of the study
- . Opportunities for participation in the study
- . Background information on what causes noise and the kinds of things that can be done about it.

INFORMATION FROM THE PUBLIC

- . How noise problems affect people currently
- . What background information the public needs about noise, the authorities of the agencies, etc.
- . Existing land use patterns
- . Planned land uses

Based on this analysis it was clear to the Policy Committee that the "publics" which held the information needed during this stage were primarily those publics living in the vicinity of the airport, the agencies (already represented on the Policy Committee) with planning authority for the area, and all elements of the aviation industry, such as the airlines, commercial pilots, general aviation pilots, etc. The Policy Committee also recognized the need to retain a consultant specializing in aircraft noise measurements. The consultant retained also had a capability to test various alternatives in a "model" and project the various noise impacts of each alternative. The Policy Committee also retained a community involvement consultant who agreed to assist in the design of the community involvement program at the beginning of each stage, and to provide some oversight.

After consultation with both consultants, the Policy Committee then implemented the following steps as the community involvement program for the Issue Identification stage:

1. An Advisory Committee was set up with representatives of the neighborhoods of Lawrence, Billston, Frederick Heights, and the portion of Jamestown which adjoined the airport. Also included on the committee were representatives of aviation groups including the airlines, the airline pilots and the Jamestown Pilots Association, a local association of general aviation pilots. There was also a representative from the Jamestown Planning Department, and the local school district, which has several schools that are impacted by aircraft noise.
2. A series of meetings was held with the Advisory Committee to review what the study was about, how it would be conducted, etc. The representatives of the neighborhood group were rather skeptical at first, and were particularly anxious to oversee the noise measurements. As a result a Task Force was set up to work with the Noise Consultant. This Task Force, which consisted primarily of the representatives of the neighborhoods set up several meetings in people's homes in each of the neighborhoods at which the Noise Consultant explained the procedures used in measuring noise, and answered questions. There were also several field demonstrations of the use of noise measuring equipment for interested citizens.
3. Another result of the first Advisory Committee meetings was that it was clear that the people from the neighborhoods did not consider the airport a good neighbor, and believed that they had not been treated fairly by the airport in the past. As a result they felt the airport was something like "enemy territory," and didn't like to meet at the airport. After discussion with the Advisory Committee, the Policy Committee agreed to the establishment of a project office to be located in one of the neighborhoods. An empty store was located in Billston which could be used for offices, as well as for committee meetings, and smaller public meetings. Because it was located right on the street, residents who were shopping in the area could just drop in, get a cup of coffee, and ask questions. Staff from both the airport proprietor (JAC) and Magdalen County who would be working on the project were assigned to staff this office. In addition a hotline was established, which would be the "one-call" line for people to get information about the project. If the staff person answering the phone didn't have the information, they would get the information then call the citizen back, rather than expect the citizen to call around until they found the person with the information.

4. A series of fact sheets and a brochure describing the study were prepared and available in the field office. In addition a news release describing the study was prepared. Rather than just mailing the news release, the JAC staff person, accompanied by an Advisory Committee representative from one of the neighborhoods, called on the news directors or editors at the newspaper, television and radio station which serviced the area. This led to very good coverage of the study, as well as an invitation to participate in several talk or interview shows to discuss the study.
5. Members of the field office staff also set up a series of speaking engagements at local service clubs, Chamber of Commerce meetings, etc., to discuss the study.
6. With the assistance of the Advisory Committee members, a number of small neighborhood meetings were conducted to brief the public on the study, and to identify how the airport presently impacts people in the neighborhoods surrounding the airport. A number of people attending these meetings expressed an interest in being more actively involved, so several task forces were set up to explore specific topics such as what had been done at other airports, compatible land uses, etc.
7. The field office staff also initiated a newsletter to all people who participated in any way or called the hotline, informing them of study progress and coordinating all the various task forces and public meetings.
8. During this period the Noise Consultants continued with noise measurements, as well as contacts with local planning officials, realtors, and developers who could advise on planned developments in the vicinity of the airport.

Based on this program, some of the antagonism between the airport and the neighborhoods began to lessen. However the relationships continued to be tense, and some of the aviation groups on the Advisory Committee were worried that what the neighborhoods really wanted was to try to shut down the airport altogether. Another thing that was noticeable was that those citizens who had been active participants had become increasingly educated about airport operations, and thereby increasingly less intimidated by aviation jargon.

STAGE II: FORMULATION OF ALTERNATIVES

The Policy Committee defined the major outcomes of the Formulation of Alternatives as:

- To develop a list of all possible alternatives for analysis and evaluation.
- To identify criteria for evaluation of alternatives.

Working with the Advisory Committee, the following information exchange was identified:

<u>INFORMATION TO THE PUBLIC</u>	<u>INFORMATION FROM THE PUBLIC</u>
<ul style="list-style-type: none">. Some of the alternative actions that might be considered. Safety considerations which would influence alternatives. Factors normally used in evaluating alternatives	<ul style="list-style-type: none">. Alternatives the public would like considered. Factors the public feels should be used in evaluating alternatives. Additional information the public needs about airport operations to consider alternatives.

Based on this information exchange, a judgment was made that the public with whom this information would need to be made available to would continue to be neighborhood publics, local agencies, and all elements of the aviation industry.

The community involvement program which was designed to handle this information exchange included the following actions:

1. A newspaper insert was prepared outlining this stage, the problems which had been identified during the first stage, and some of the alternative actions which might be taken. This insert was distributed by the newspaper to those routes in the neighborhoods near the airport. Readers were invited to participate either by clipping out and completing a response form, or by attending a series of community workshops.
2. The local community college designed and conducted a series of three one-day symposiums on aviation and possible actions to reduce noise. These symposiums were held on Saturdays at a school in the Lawrence area. Approximately 150 people attended each of these symposiums.
3. A series of community workshops were held, with several workshops in each of the four neighborhood areas. Rather than general discussions, these workshops were specifically structured to generate lists of alternative actions, and suggestions for how to evaluate them.
4. Many of the suggestions made were only partial or incomplete ideas, so that one of the Task Forces worked with the project staff to expand these ideas into complete alternatives.

5. Since the field office had increasingly become the focal point for all noise complaints, a report was issued by the field office showing the number of calls which had been received, the kinds of complaints which had been received, and the actions that had been taken in response to these complaints. One thing which was indicated by these complaints was that neighbors were as upset with the noise from run-up as they were with take-off and landing noise. The airport proprietor indicated that some form of immediate action might be possible on run-up, so a small work group of citizens, the airport, and airline representatives was established to recommend actions to reduce run-up noise.
6. Field office staff also continued the newsletter on a monthly basis, and published a number of fact sheets on airport operations which served as background for understanding the alternative actions which might be taken.

During these community involvement activities a number of alternative actions were proposed and discussed, including:

- a. Relocation of run-up areas.
- b. Curfews on run-ups during evening hours.
- c. Land use regulations to preclude construction of non-compatible uses around the airport.
- d. Buying land to ensure compatible uses.
- e. Purchasing of several noise-impacted homes, and creating a buffer zone around the airport.
- f. Use of preferential runways, to get maximum use of runways with least noise impact.
- g. Rotating runway use, to distribute impacts equally.
- h. Limiting or prohibiting operations at certain hours.
- i. Revised take-off procedures to reduce engine noise impact.

One important thing which occurred during this stage was that the task force working on run-up procedures was able to identify a location for run-up, acceptable to the airport proprietor and the airlines, which would reduce noise impacts on neighbors. The airlines also indicated they would agree to a run-up curfew between 10 p.m. and 7 a.m. every night.

On the other hand the group representing the airlines indicated strong opposition to any mandatory curfew on flights themselves, arguing that it wasn't just the impact on one airport that had to be considered, but the overall impact on aviation if every airport adopted curfews.

STAGE III: ANALYSIS AND EVALUATION OF ALTERNATIVES

The planning outcomes identified for this phase were:

- Identify the impacts and feasibility of each alternative
- Eliminate alternatives which are clearly infeasible, or with impacts which are mutually agreed to be unacceptable.
- Identify those alternatives which have the greatest promise for implementation.

The information exchange which was identified was:

<u>INFORMATION TO THE PUBLIC</u>	<u>INFORMATION FROM THE PUBLIC</u>
. Identification of alternatives that are technically infeasible	. Relative value of each alternative
. Consultant's evaluation of the social, economic, and environmental impacts of each alternative	. Impacts the public sees resulting from each alternative
. Safety or operational implications of each alternative	
. Probable sources for funding (or lack thereof) for each alternative.	

Because the impacts resulting from the proposed alternatives could affect all airport users, not just people living near the airport, a decision was made to expand the community involvement activities during this phase to reach a much broader public.

In consultation with the Advisory Committee, the Policy Committee then designed and implemented the following program:

1. A brochure was prepared outlining each of the alternatives and some of the known impacts of each alternative.
2. A series of community workshops were held during which people identified the impacts they believed would result from each alternative.

3. Simultaneously, and in conjunction with this, the Consultant conducted an analysis of each alternative to determine its technical feasibility, and its environmental, economic, and social impact. The Consultant worked closely with the Advisory Committee to ensure that the methodology utilized was understood and accepted. The Consultant also reviewed the public comment from the community workshops, and prepared an analysis of the impacts seen by the public.
4. Based on the comment received in the community workshops, and the Consultant's work, a report was prepared describing all the alternatives, and identifying the impacts associated with each alternative. Great attention was paid to writing this report in a simple easy-to-understand manner. A brief booklet was also prepared summarizing the larger report.
5. Arrangements were then made with the newspapers to run a three-part series of feature articles describing the major alternatives and their impacts. Interested readers were encouraged to phone the hotline number or participate in upcoming public meetings.
6. Arrangements were also made with a local college to prepare a one hour television program on the alternatives. This program was then broadcast over a local television station. Again the hotline number, and the upcoming public meetings were advertised.
7. In addition arrangements were made for project staff to appear on interview and talk shows on both radio and television. One program featured a discussion of the alternatives between five Advisory Committee members, including both neighborhood and aviation interests.
8. A newspaper insert was also developed describing the alternatives and was distributed through newspapers to the neighborhoods. This newspaper insert also included a clip-out response form which allowed residents to mail in responses if they preferred.
9. The same newspaper insert was distributed to airline passengers, who were invited to evaluate the alternatives from the perspective of an airport user.
10. A series of public meetings were held to receive public comment on the alternatives. These meetings were held in the neighborhoods near the airport, and also in other communities throughout the region to provide opportunities for participation for everybody affected by the alternatives. The format of these meetings allowed for presentations by groups, followed by small group discussion of the issues.
11. The monthly newsletter was also continued.

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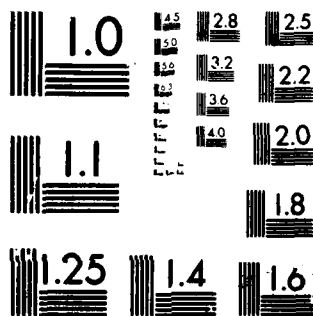
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3. Simultaneously, and in conjunction with this, the Consultant conducted an analysis of each alternative to determine its technical feasibility, and its environmental, economic, and social impact. The Consultant worked closely with the Advisory Committee to ensure that the methodology utilized was understood and accepted. The Consultant also reviewed the public comment from the community workshops, and prepared an analysis of the impacts seen by the public.
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11. The monthly newsletter was also continued.

Altogether more than 1,600 mail-in responses were received, as well as 450 phone calls. A total of 950 people attended the series of public meetings. Some of the comment in the neighborhood meetings was still very critical of the airport, based on past history, but in several meetings individuals pointed out how many people in the community depended on the airport for a living, and the mood generally shifted to finding a more effective means of working together.

One of the major conflicts in the meetings held in the neighborhoods was over the land acquisition alternative. Many homeowners believe this was the only alternative which would allow them to sell their homes at reasonable value and get out of the noise-impacted area. Others saw the program as a "land grab" by the airport.

Another hotly debated alternative was land use regulation to ensure that no new buildings were constructed near the airport which were incompatible with the airport. While a majority appeared to favor this alternative, a small but quite vocal group protested this kind of governmental interference with private property rights.

SECTION IV: DECISIONMAKING

INFORMATION TO PUBLIC

- . Public evaluation of alternatives received during the previous stage
- . Detailed evaluation of major alternatives
- . Potential sources for funding of alternatives
- . Institutional authorities for implementing the alternatives

INFORMATION FROM PUBLIC

- . Acceptability of various major alternatives
- . Modifications of alternatives to make them more acceptable or minimize impacts
- . Willingness of various agencies or organizations to implement elements of the program

Based on this analysis it appeared that the public to be reached during this stage was primarily the agencies and interest groups involved in implementing the program, and neighborhood groups. The Advisory Committee served as the forum for discussion leading to a final plan.

The community involvement program which was carried out included the following actions:

1. A summary of all public comment received during the last stage was prepared and distributed to all people who had participated in the program. News releases were also issued outlining the major findings, and several newspapers did news stories discussing the report.

2. The Consultant's analysis and public comment was then reviewed by the Advisory Committee. It was determined that there were six alternatives on which there was broad general agreement. These included:
 - a. The run-up procedures and run-up curfew, already implemented by the airport during Stage II.
 - b. Soundproofing of schools, hospitals, and other public buildings.
 - c. Enacting building codes to require that homes and public buildings in the area be insulated against noise.
 - d. Some homes nearest the airport would be insulated at airport expense, while others would be partially subsidized.
 - e. Use of preferential runways.
 - f. Use of a noise-abating takeoff flight track.

The alternatives which remained controversial included:

- a. Land use controls over land adjoining the airport.
 - b. Curfews regarding night flights.
 - c. Acquisition of homes and land to create a buffer.
3. The Advisory Committee continued to meet in an effort to resolve these final issues. After several meetings the airline representatives indicated that while they continued to be vehemently opposed to any mandatory curfew, two of the three major airlines would willingly reduce flights arriving or departing after 11 p.m. The third airline only had two flights which departed or arrived after 11 p.m. After some discussion this approach was accepted.
4. The members of the Advisory Board did agree to propose language for land use regulation to the City of Jamestown and Magdalen County. With the assistance of the Consultant, language was worked out which was acceptable to the committee. Each neighborhood representative then held a meeting in his/her neighborhood to get reaction to the language. With minor changes the language was acceptable. The neighborhood representatives then organized groups of citizens from the neighborhoods to present the proposed regulations to the City Council and County Commissioners. Although there continued to be bitter opposition from the group opposing land use controls as undue government interference, the large groups of citizens from the neighborhood convinced both the City Council and County Commissioners of community support. Following a series of public

hearings conducted by the city and counties, the land use regulation was adopted by both city and county.

5. The question of acquisition of homes and land continued to be divisive with concerns focused on the use of condemnation for unwilling sellers, and procedures for determining the value of the property. The Advisory Committee was unable to resolve this question and finally agreed to call an all-day meeting on a Saturday and invite everybody who might be affected to thrash it out. A letter was mailed to all landowners who might be affected inviting them to the meeting. The meeting was attended by several hundred people, and was acrimonious at the beginning. But after much discussion, including consultation with the airport and FAA, a general agreement was developed that the land acquisition program would be on a purely voluntary basis, but no soundproofing subsidies would be offered to residences within the area to be acquired. With this general agreement established, there was then a discussion of procedures for determining the value of the property, relocation, etc.
6. While these latter questions were not resolved in the meeting, the Policy Board developed a recommended procedure, based on the meeting discussion, which was presented to the Advisory Committee. After some discussions with citizens in the neighborhoods, the Advisory Committee approved the procedure.
7. A final newspaper insert was then prepared describing the proposed plan, including all nine action items. This insert was distributed to all residents of the adjoining neighborhoods and all individuals who had participated during the study. Final comments were invited. In addition there were news stories describing the proposed plan. Public reaction appeared to be quite favorable.
8. A final report was then submitted to the Airport Commission, FAA, and Magdalen County for approval. The neighborhood groups sponsored presentations to the Airport Commission and the Magdalen County Commissioners. The report was approved.

CONCLUSION

This hypothetical case assumes a substantial budget and a high level of commitment to community involvement from all sponsoring organizations. The purpose of the case is to demonstrate the use of the thought process, and show how the various community involvement activities interrelate. The circumstances you face may be different, and you are strongly encouraged to develop your own program adapted to the unique requirements of your situation.

CHAPTER 11: RESOURCE MATERIALS

There has been a growing body of literature in the field of community involvement, most of it in water resource, land use, or transportation planning. Most of these materials can be readily adapted to aviation issues. The major resource materials are indicated below, listed by subject matter.

General Guides/Summaries of Techniques:

The Federal Highway Administration has issued several documents which are general guides to community involvement and contain useful summaries of techniques. The first document is titled "Effective Citizen Participation in Transportation Planning." This is a two-volume report. Volume II is particularly useful because it contains a very complete list of public involvement techniques, their advantages and disadvantages. The FHWA has also published a document which summarizes these two volumes titled "Selecting Effective Citizen Participation Techniques." Both of these documents are available from the National Technical Information Service, Springfield, Virginia, 22101.

The U. S. Forest Service has also published a document titled, "The Inform and Involve Handbook." This manual identifies a number of community involvement techniques and provides guidance on which techniques are suitable for which circumstances. This document would be available from the Office of Public Information of the U. S. Forest Service, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.

The Corps of Engineers has also published a guide titled, "Public Involvement in the Corps of Engineers Planning Process," by James R. Hanchey. This document is published by the Corps' Institute for Water Resources. Another document, harder to obtain, is the Participant's Manual from the Corps of Engineers Advanced Course, developed by James L. Creighton. These documents would be available from the Institute for Water Resources, Fort Belvoir, Virginia.

Identifying Publics:

The definitive document in this field is "Identification of Publics in Water Resources Planning" by Gene E. Willeke. This document was published by the Department of City Planning, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, Georgia.

Designing Effective Meetings:

As indicated earlier, the U. S. Environmental Protection Agency has published a guide entitled, "Effective Public Meetings" by James R. Ragan, Jr., which is a very good summary of information about effective meetings.

The Federal Highway Administration has also published a very comprehensive volume on meeting leadership entitled, "Improving the Effectiveness of Public Meetings and Hearings," by Helen Neuhaus and William Mathews. This report which is dated July, 1978, does not indicate whether it is available from FHWA or the National Technical Information Service. Inquiries should be made of the Office of Environmental Policy of FHWA, Washington, D. C.

Working Effectively with Advisory Committees:

The U. S. Environmental Protection Agency has published a document entitled "Working Effectively with Advisory Committees in Water Quality Planning," by Ann Widditch (May, 1977). This excellent short guide can be obtained from the Office of Public Affairs, A-107, U. S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, D. C.

Working with the Media:

The U. S. Environmental Protection Agency has also published a guide on "Effective Use of Media." This guide is also available from the U. S. EPA Office of Public Affairs in Washington, D. C.

The League of Women Voters has also published several short pamphlets with useful guides for working with the media. These documents include:

- "Reaching the Public"
- "Breaking into Broadcasting"
- "Projecting Your Image: How to Produce a Slide Show"
- "Getting Into Print"

These documents are available from the League of Women Voters, 1730 M Street N.W., Washington, D. C. 20036, for a nominal charge.